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HOW THE EXPERIENCE OF INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION CAN BE MADE WORTHWHILE

by

©

Allan Roger Neil

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis:

To my mother and father, who have given me courage and enabled me to be peaceful.

To my brother Richard, for challenging me to think, and engaging me in abstract thought at a time when it appeared very precious.

To Dr. Robert Patterson, for his trust, his good example as a teacher, and his caring guidance.

To Mary Neil, with thanks beyond any words for her strength, love, and help at every turn.

ABSTRACT

Inservice is broadly defined to include all activities engaged in by professional personnel during their service and designed to contribute to improvement on the job. This thesis has aimed to discover what makes such experiences worthwhile. The majority of teachers have found their inservice experiences to be of little worth, yet the research literature requires information about inservice participants' perspectives on inservice.

The author has found the interview method invaluable in gaining insight into inservice activities. Five interviewees, all with wide-ranging educational experience and expertise, took part in a series of interviews over a period of three months. Themes about inservice teacher education appeared to thread through all the interviews.

After considerable reflection upon the significance of the interview themes, the author was able to better realize how inservice teacher education can be made worthwhile. The experience of inservice was seen to be enlivened both by participants' attitudes and their procedures of civility.

In addition to civil attitudes such as kindness and tolerance, civil procedures that make inservice worthwhile were named. There were seen to be two kinds of procedures: personal civility and organizational civility.

Personal civility has been seen to include needs assessment procedures of 1) needs grouping according to experience and expertise. 2) accounting for short and long term needs and 3) reconception of needs to include past interests and future purposes. In addition, personal civility during inservice is enlivened by participants' educative conscience of 1) volition 2) faith 3) receptivity and 4) judgment.

At the same time, organizational civility has been understood to result from collegiality with regard to 1) place of the inservice 2) induction year practises 3) recognition of collegial evolution 4) balance between an organized agenda and social contact 5) identification of false collegiality. Organizational civility also develops through leadership which 1) differentiates the role of manager from that of pedagogue 2) feeds congeniality 3). initiates cooperative planning and implementation of inservice and 4) sustains conceptualization of district problems.

The study concludes by stating that procedures of

civility hold promise for meshing both personal and organizational inservice goals. Further, specific procedures of civility are recommended to redress these major causes of inservice failure: 1) oversimplication of the inservice process 2) existing social ambiguities of the school milieu 3) difficulties in galvanizing some teachers' commitment 4) the normative influences exerted by universities 5) weak evaluation practises.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

This thesis has evolved through the author's own experience, beliefs and efforts toward scholarship, coupled with the inspiration and guidance of many educators. Originally, my research was centered on the existential presence of "the teacher", not as a psychological or behavioural role-model, but as the pivot of educative activity. This existential presence has been clearly conceived by both Herbert Read and Martin Buber (Read, 1945, Chapter 9; Buber, 1974, p. 40). In their view, the teacher "transposes" himself, absorbing himself completely in the reality in which he participates - thereby experiencing the student both as the student is, and the student's possibilities. Thus, I came to regard the educative act as fulfilled in an atmosphere of trust, to the degree of the teacher's understanding and relative to the student's confidence in the teacher.

For some time I devoted my scholarly attention to understanding the dynamics of the educative act. I studied philosophy of education and curriculum research. Next, in the course of my Doctoral studies, I began to regard the student-teacher relationship in the light of teacher education practises.

As my research into teacher education progressed, three main factors caused me to decide to pay particular attention to inservice teacher education: 1) Both inservice and pre-service fields would have been too broad to integrate into one thesis. 2) With current job-scarcity teachers are staying "in-service" longer, which places a strong demand on improving inservice education. 3) My own inservice experiences have been both challenging and mediocre so that I felt inspired to complete further research on the process of inservice teacher education. What makes inservice activity worthwhile to the educators that participate in it became my central focus, once I discovered the needs of the research field.

Need for the Study

> The 1980's will be the decade of staff development just as the 1960's and 1970's were the decades of curriculum development. We have an abundance of curriculum and instruction plans, we now need to put them into operation in our schools ... However, inservice teacher training as it is now constituted is the slum of American education. (Wood and Thompson, 1980, p. 38)

Present socio-economic conditions cause inservice teacher education to be a vital concern for many: 1) Strong teachers' organizations demand professional development for the general cadre of teachers (Johnson, 1980, p. XI). 2) Tension exists between public alarm about falling student test scores and the consequent professional concern about a poor image (Rubin, 1978, Introduction). 3) Economic uncertainty has increased the length of teacher's job tenure, which de-emphasizes pre-service education in favour of an "on-the-job" focus of inservice (Kerr, 1983, p. 535-551). 4) Confronting economic stress, school districts and larger governing bodies are becoming aware that municipal expenditures through inservice are substantially less than pre-service costs at the provincial or state level (Lortie, 1975, p. 19). 5) Universities are shifting their programmes toward inservice as P.D.U.'s (professional development units) and C.E.U.'s (continuing education units) begin to replace many college credit hours (Sandefur, 1979, pp. 9-13). 6) The present acceleration of new knowledge in all fields demands that teachers cultivate a continuing education, both generally and in their subject specialty (Horowitz, 1976; Cropley and Dave, 1978, p. 22).

But in the face of these socio-economic pressures, inservice research has been meagre (Harris, 1969, p. 1; Finlay, 1978, p. 4). Such inquiry can be considered as near its starting point (Hersh, 1978, p. 195; Rubin, 1978, p. 1). Unfortunately, most research has narrowly associated inservice to the measured relationship between inservice and student achievement on test scores, (Fenstermacher, 1980, p. 46; Collins et al, 1979) ignoring broader correlational studies that compare perspectives from different geographic, personal and institutional arenas. (Yarger and Galluzo in Howey and Gardner, 1983).

Rather than narrowly concentrating on the effectiveness of single inservice procedures the research on inservice education seriously needs: 1) to focus on the process of inservice itself (Joyce, 1976, p. 16; Taylor, 1978, p. 161; Henderson 1981, Introduction; Wideen, 1984, p. 249); 2) to obtain more thorough knowledge concerning the beliefs, attitudes and perceptions that educational professionals bring to the inservice endeavour (Yarger and Galluzo in Howey and Gardner, 1983, p. 186; Burke, 1980, p. 35; Fenstermacher, 1980, p. 46; Leithwood, 1981; Fullan, 1983, p. 216). 3) conceptual frameworks that might sustain continuing inservice teacher education (Massanari, 1977, pp. 41-43; Henderson, 1977, pp. 162-175; Perez, 1980; Howey and Corrigan, 1980, p. 3; Haberman, 1980, p. 5; Bolam, 1982; Hersom, 1984, p. 255).

Particular illustrations of each need can be cited. For example, Wideen (1984) describes as a "substantive priority" research that would be experimental in nature, which would shift our attention to the process of inservice. He indicates that such a shift would replace a theoretical vacuum that is out of touch with how young people become teachers. Then, Fullan (1983) points out that teachers' beliefs and assumptions underly any given approach to change, and that organizational change will only be sustained when we learn to address educators' attitudes and personal commitment (Fullan, 1978). Lastly, Hersom (1984) notes that little reliable information is available about the role of inservice in the continuing professional education of teachers. She feels that better conceptualization of optimal sequence, timing and content of inservice activities holds promise for creating the capacity in the whole teaching profession to meet future challenges.

Purpose of the Study. At the same time as the literature has yielded very little knowledge of educators' beliefs and concepts about their inservice experiences, it is well known that the majority of teachers find their inservice activities to be of little worth (Howey, 1983, p. 22). The research at hand aims to discover how inservice activity can be made worthwhile, with special attention to the beliefs and concepts of the participants. The interview method has been invaluable in this endeavour. But before describing the methodology of this inquiry, the author's definition of the terms "inservice" and "worthwhile" will be clarified.

Definitions

Inservice Teacher Education

Like Yarger and Galluzo (1983, p. 167) I have adopted Hass' 1957 definition of inservice:

> Broadly conceived, inservice education includes all activities engaged in by the professional personnel during their service and designed to contribute to improvement on the job. (Hass, 1957, p. 13)

Thus cyclical professional development days are included, as are cooperative supervision activities, as well as single-subject inservicing workshops and long-term curriculum development enterprise.

On the other hand, preservice teacher education is excluded as its inclusion would broaden the scope of the research unmanageably. Also excluded is education solely for self-improvement. This is not to deny that personal educational goals and public inservice opportunities cannot be co-existent. In terms of life-long learning they certainly are (Altmann et al, 1979) but the focus of the research at hand will be on inservice that is aimed to at once improve school organizations and teacher education. Thus, the author's definition is akin to Burke's (1980, p. 232) and Regan's (1975, p. 220) which emphasize inservice as a program of study and work that takes place after certification with the mutual efforts of teachers, administrators, University personnel and government agencies. This perspective is clearly, then, "job-related" (Joyce et al, 1976) and designed to help practising teachers in the performance of their daily tasks (Yarger and Brannigan, 1979, p. 1), rather than singular efforts toward personal achievement (Cane, 1969).

Worthwhile Inservice

The author has purposefully not circumscribed the term "worthwhile" in the course of the research interviews because the main aim of the study has been to expand such knowledge. Nevertheless, 'worthwhileness' was sought in terms of the interviewees' concrete experiences, their beliefs and attitudes about those experiences and their conceptualizations of how to make inservice worthwhile on a continuing basis.

Generally, 'worthwhile inservices' are those that would correspond with the author's definition of the term inservice. That is, a worthwhile inservice would at once aim at improving school organization and teacher education, mutually undertaken by teachers, administrators and resource personnel. Worthy inservice would help practising teachers in the performance of their daily tasks. But, the primary purpose of the research at hand is to discover what makes these experiences worthwhile.

Further description of the author's understanding of what makes inservice worthwhile can be found in two parts of the thesis: 1) in the description of the author's past inservice experience and scholarly research on the subject, which follows in the Methodology; and 2) in the fifth Chapter of this thesis, where the researcher endeavours to integrate the interview findings by delineating essential procedures that make inservice worthwhile.

Methodology

Rationale

Although inservice teacher education research has no consensually agreed upon methods (Yarger and Galluzo, 1983, p. 163), many researchers realize that complex interactions intrinisic to educational activity demand formative examination rather than a process-product methodology that narrowly focuses on effectiveness (Schalock, 1980, pp. 525-527; Hall and Loucks, 1982, p. 137). The study at hand has been carried on in the form of qualitative methodology, which addresses the current needs for qualitative research in the inservice field (Wideen, 1984; Grimmett, 1984). Wide-scale short-term systems analysis has not reached these needs with questionnaires and monocular achievement testing (Yarger and Galluzo, 1983); nor have these requirements been met with an empirical, analytic focus on specific isolated variables (Wideen, 1984, p. 248).

Within possible qualitative methods, the form of the interview was adopted for the present study for a number of reasons. In general terms, interviews that are substantial and of multiple occurence are acknowledged to provoke understanding of high quality (Tuckman, 1978, p. 212). Specific to the inservice research requirements for knowledge about process, interviews have afforded face-to-face recognition of communication that encourages participants to go beyond a set framework of questionning (Cicourel, 1964; Wiseman and Pidgeon, 1970, pp. 105-107). Relative to the inservice research need to discover beliefs and attitudes, the interview method enabled a direct probing of feelings and perceptions of the interviewees (Wiersma, 1975, pp. 138), that became a collaborative enterprise of oral history (Thompson, 1979, p. 209). Lastly, the inservice research needs that call for clarification of conceptual frameworks were met in extensive interview conversations that resulted in far more than a tabulation of gathered facts. The interview method provided a rigorous, deep interpretation of professional educators' concepts of inservice that would not have been possible within the sharply defined ends and means approach of "normal" applied science methodology (Dewey, 1910; Best, 1959, p. 167; Peattie, 1960, p. 300-304; Glaser and Strauss, 1967; Cronbach, 1975, p. 124; Hamilton et al, 1977, pp. 6-22; Rist, 1977, p. 44; Schubert, 1980, p. 18).

Methodological Procedures

The interview methodology proceeded in six steps:

1) A choice was made as to which educators should be interviewed. The interviewees were chosen especially for their wide-ranging educational experience and

expertise. All five have been teachers, and either administrators or consultants. Further, all interviewees have or are working towards their Ph.D in education. They have all achieved excellent academic standing. Their perspectives on inservice teacher education were multiple and based both on manifold field experiences as well as serious scholarly research. In addition, as members of the Department of Secondary Education at The University of Alberta, the interviewees were all receptive to the strong potential of qualitative research to illuminate inservice practice. A "professional sketch" of each interviewee will be included in Chapter Three.

2) Initial interviews were carried out (see example in Appendix one). Commencing in December, 1983, each of the five educators were interviewed independently for a duration of approximately two hours each. These interviews, and subsequent interviews, were recorded on a tape recorder, which allowed for an uninterrupted, complex exchange of ideas (Gordon, 1980). Each of these initial interviews was set in motion by the researcher's question: "What was worthwhile about inservice education, in your experience?" This led to many associations and queries between the researcher and the interviewees during the course of each of these first interviews, which were completed by February 1984.

3) Written transcripts of every interview were made, then interpreted and discussed throughout the

interview process. In all, each educator was interviewed at least four times. As each taped interview was transcribed in writing the researcher made notes and observations about the underlying meaning in the text of that dialogue. The author's interpretive re-examination of each text was then brought forth into the subsequent interview in the form of questions that were explored with the interviewee. This questioning activity was aimed at unclouding underlying ambiguity in the interviews and spurring further inquiry and insight.

For example, the questions that arose both during interviews and during the researcher's transcription activities were sometimes of a gritty fact-finding nature, like: "How should that British movement educator's name be spelled? Is it Norah Chatwyn?" More often, the questioning was probing, searching for the subtle intent of the interviewee, such as: "When you spoke of the key place of supervision during inservice that involved class demonstrations, were you referring to the supervisory role as that of an inspector? How did it differ then?" Often times the commitment and interest-level of the interviewees was such that they also brought reflective comments from the previous interview to the proceeding exchange. This process is documented in the text of the interviews and will be further described in chapter three as the first order validation of the interviews.

4) The texts of each interview were typed and a written synopsis of each interviewee's contribution was made. Upon completing the body of the interviews, the author reviewed them, and made a typed text of the dialogues as well as a synopsis of the main ideas from each interviewee's individual contribution. The synopsis of each educator's perspective consolidated the views that the author felt were most strongly made or repeated during the course of the interviews. Unique perspectives and original viewpoints that each interviewee had presented were also included in the respective synopsis.

5) The author's snyopsis of each interviewee's contribution to the research dialogue was presented to them individually in written form for their response and clarification of meaning. During March and April, 1984, the interviewees' oral responses to the author's synopsis of their ideas were recorded on tape recorder. Later, the written text of each interviewees' response was typed. Both synopsis and responses were more concise than the ongoing, extensive first-order validations had been. The interviewees' responses were found to indeed validate the author's synoptic perspectives of what he had conceived the original dialogues to mean. These second order validation procedures will be included in Chapter three to inform the reader of the substance of the synopsis and the interviewees' corresponding reactions.

6) Finally, research sources that had sustained first and second order validation were synthesized by the author. Common themes and major ideas were seen to exist. For example, "A re-interpretation of inservice needs-assessment" was one recurring theme. Another was "Educative conscience - how teachers at once maintain their ideals and address concrete problems". Relationships between these findings and the established research needs of the inservice field were later explored by the author.

To reiterate, the author's interview methodology proceeded in six steps: 1) A choice was made as to which educators should be interviewed. 2) Initial interviews were carried out. 3) Written transcripts of every interview were made, then interpreted and discussed throughout the interview process. 4) The texts of each interview were typed and a written synopsis of each interviewee's contribution was made. 5) The author's synopsis of each interviewee's contribution to the research dialogue was presented to them individually in written form for their oral response and clarification of meaning. 6) Finally, research sources that had sustained first and second order validation processes were synthesized by the author to discover common themes and major ideas from the research.

Research Validity and the Researcher's Interpretive Stance. In qualitative research, such as the interviews and their interpretation that follow in this thesis, normal science research canons of verifiability do not apply. One does not desire a "mean view" determined by reducing the interview data to some average. Rather than testing for statistical significance, one searches for illumination and insight derived from conversation and reflection (Eisner, 1981, pp. 4-5; Pinar: 1980, p. 25; Willis, 1978; Hamilton, 1977). Significance of the study is gauged by historical and philosophical reference within the interviews, as well as the inclusion of parts of the text in the study so that readers may respond to the interview data, as if they were making observations themselves (Stake, 1980, p. 9). The interpretations of the interviews are valid to the degree of their referential adequacy and structural corroboration (McCutcheon, 1979). That is, they are made credible by the author's linking of his interpretations to the reference fields of educational research as well as the efficacy with which the author links evidential parts, so that the structure of the whole is greater than the sum of those parts (Schubert, 1982).

Further, the length of time the researcher spends with the interviewees (in this case four interviews with each person over a two-month period) as well as the geographical proximity of the interviewees and the researcher (commonly stationed, at The University of Alberta, Department of Secondary Education) enhances the prospects of interpretive validity (Homans, in Bruyn, 1966; Wolcott, 1975, p. 122).

Relating to the relationship between the researcher and those individuals participating in the research itself, Macdonald (1980) points out that the research and the stance of the researcher must be considered together. Thus the researcher's viewpoint is considered problematic, so that when it becomes disclosed the interpretive stance validly reflects the research undertaken[1] (Polanyi, 1968, p. 17; Myrdal, 1969, p. 9; Kuhn, 1969, p. 163; Habermas, 1972, p. 313; Habermas, 1979, p. 2; Macdonald, 1975, 1977; Aoki, 1978; Williams, 1981; Stehr, 1983, p. 551). The personal knowledge of the researcher is acknowledged to be permeated with valuations and underlying knowledge - constitutive interests that have affected the researcher's interactions with the interviewees and have been influential in the research conclusions. The interpretive stance the author has brought to the interviews and explanations in this thesis has been derived essentially from two grounds: 1) Concrete experiences of inservice education that the researcher has had both as a teacher and as a consultant. 2) The author's scholarly research on the meaning of education. In describing concrete experiences respect is paid to inductive processes whereby the multiplicity of the world's phenomena is grasped as a unity of meaning - simply and at once. The reference to the author's scholarly research also pays respect to the part that philosophy plays in allowing a thoughtful exploration of the multiple experiences of humanity (Wojtyla, 1979, pp. 14-18). Both scholarly and experiential grounds have been primarily ontologically relevant to the interviews. That is, these grounds haven't been epistemologically spelled out within the exchange of the interviews, but they have been the researcher's tacit guide. A) Concrete Experiences of Inservice Education. The author's previous experiences of inservice teacher education have helped him to better understand the interviews within the present research. These experiences arose during five years spent as a teacher and informal consultant in School Districts #15, in Penticton, British Columbia (1977 - 1982). They afforded the researcher some insight into some of the less fruitful experiences that the interviewees have described. These experiences also enabled him to make many ongoing associations to the inservice activities that were described by the interviewees. The researcher's grounding in actual inservice experiences lent depth to the concrete deliberations of the interviews (Schwab, 1978, pp. 287-303, originally 1970; Schwab in Walker, 1975, p. viii)[2].

Fortunately, in the Penticton school district, some of the administrative staff encouraged the local teachers to participate in a variety of inservice experiences. In contrast, some of the inservice activity contributed very little to teacher education. After-class, administrative policy show-cases and whirlwind introductory teas for first year teachers comprised these hectic inservices.

Yet, a vital diversity of activities served to make up the greater part of the author's inservice teacher education in Penticton. For example one or two-day long conventions were organized conjointly by the administration and local specialist groups, i.e. the primary teachers' association. Lengthy planning aimed at recognizing needs for inservice within the context of these smaller groups was then recorded by the administration, who made up a program that engaged as many relevant resource people as could be found. Multiple choice was made available to conference participants for each one of the three or four inservice sessions daily. In addition, the teacher who might be personally interested in attending a conference in another city was supported by the hiring of a substitute, and his or her conference fees and travel expenses were handled by the administration.

There were less conventional inservices that were very beneficial to the school community in Penticton. A class-interchange program was set up among schools, although it faltered due to organizational problems at central administration. While in operation, this was an inservice program of stirring dimension. For example, with the support of one's principal, a teacher could leave their own class for a morning or a day to visit any other teacher they chose, providing that teacher was amenable to a visit. This schedule was originally to be rotating so that at least two visits could be managed every year by each teacher. In this way, the "green-horn" teacher could benefit by observing the professional teacher of substantial experience; and on the other hand the "old-timer" could be renewed with enthusiasm while participating in another teacher's creative approach.

There were weekend retreats for whole school staffs, funded by the teachers' association, the school board, as well as the participating school. At these retreats many personnel problems could be ironed-out and much of value could be exchanged regarding subject-matter and class organization.

The districts' bi-annual Art's Festival was instigated by an art's committee, of which the writer was chairman. Again, a sensitive administration first formed this group by inviting both elementary and secondary teachers with credentials in the arts for a series of tete-a-tetes. We were informed that a very small amount of funds was available to us, but more importantly we were encouraged to work together after recognizing each other's individual strengths. The collegial sharing of these arts committee meetings at once inspired teacher education and many curriculum changes - personally as well as throughout the District.

Further, the general public was invited to the Arts Festivals that we planned, just as they are invited to participate in most Science Fairs. Personally this contact gave the author confidence to accept an invitation on the part of the City of Penticton Arts Council to be the chairman of their education committee. As the Council invited other teachers to make presentations at our meetings, a very constructive kind of inservice took place between the broader community and the public school teaching staff. Simultaneously, the administration once again provided financial and moral support in the creation of "...for Art's Sake", a district newsletter of the Arts which the researcher edited. Further, the articles that were submitted most often aimed at reaching the classroom teacher - through tried-and-true methods, i.e. how to help grade sixers enjoy playing the recorder in a series of ten lessons; or through invigorating or humorous articles stimulating both reflection and amusement.

Lastly, the writer had two inservice experiences directly involving curriculum change. Of course, curriculum isn't developed in a vacuum, and thankfully the Penticton administration realized that for a more meaningful impact on teacher education in their District, teacher participation was essential. This was realized far less completely in the first instance than the second.

Firstly, because the researcher was well-known in the district as having a serious interest in art, lesson-plans he had developed were sought by district personnel. These were generally thought to be worth keeping by district teachers when they received copies through the administration (perhaps because they were distributed in good three-ring binders). Inter-school contact through the Art's Festivals encouraged this trust. Also, the fact that the fifty illustrated lesson plans were correlated to the familiar provincial science and social studies curricula facilitated their use and enhanced their meaning for many teachers.

But in the second case - the development of a new District music curricula, a far more educative inservice experience was achieved. The curriculum change occurred over a period of three years, actively engaged a core group of music specialists, and included hundreds of other teachers in its formation. The enlightened administrative attitude throughout the curriculum change was that the making of the curriculum itself was to be a kind of long-term inservice education.

Initially, the core group of teachers whose cumulative file indicated they were musically adept were invited to the District Resource Centre, and related each of their strengths and interests. We then criticized the existing music curriculum, pointing out its vitality and weaknesses. A key factor toward the success of the change were the next steps we took. In sub-groups of two or three, members of the core music group visited all the District schools to carry on dialogue as to both the needs the other teachers saw, and new directions they'd like to take up. All of the core group were recognized by the other staff as deeply committed to music prior to the inservice/curriculum change. For example, the author had helped establish a Suzuki violin school in town, while another core member had often been a provincial choir festival conductor. Therefore, as we met over the next year to discuss directions and needs in each school, we were met with respect.[3]

Concurrently, the whole core group met periodically at the Resource Centre and we exchanged our school-centered views to obtain a District "picture". Immediately resolvable needs such as the need for casters on the one piano in a primary school's library gave direct relief to many schools, and solidified trust in our core group. We also set into motion several "pilot curricula" that several schools wanted to experiment with. This entailed obtaining the materials, having sessions to understand the materials, then classroom experiments with feedback from a member of the core-group if desired. Pre-made programs were soon understood as mere starting points.

Then, as the district needs and particular school aims became clear, long-term commitments to particular music methods were made. For example, one school, with little music experience among its teachers, had decided that after piloting a Kodaly method that they all would like to learn about it. Subsequently, over the next year, numerous professional days were given over, in that particular school, to theory and hands-on experience with Kodaly methods, under the tutelage of an expert external to the district.

Lastly, in the third year, some of the core group made bi-monthly class visits to support "new-born" music programs in various schools. Thus concrete problems in each class were addressed. Often the more experienced core teacher would give a series of class demonstrations in the teacher's home-room to help expand the teacher's own vocabulary of understanding.

Taken together, my few negative inservice experiences of after-class administrative policy showcases and whirlwind introductory teas, were sharply contrasted by the many valuable inservice experiences I'd had. As I was to later discover in a review of the inservice literature, teacher's inservice activities are not commonly positive. So the potential existed for the inservice field to benefit from my perspective that inservice teacher education could be worthwhile as it had been personally in: 1) one or two day conventions jointly organized by staff and administration, 2) support for travel and provision of substitute teachers to enable travel to special interest inservice that wasn't available locally, 3) class/teacher exchange programs of half and full day duration, 4) weekend whole-staff retreats for program and personnel brainstorming and communication, 5) bi-annual Arts Festival/Science Fair organization on a collegial, voluntary basis, 6) involvement in community education enterprises such as community Arts Council meetings and lectures, 7) editing a district newsletter of the Arts, involving classroom teachers in sharing their projects and ideas, 8) a three year curriculum change effort. Thus, I was encouraged to proceed with the research at hand from a highly positive experiential grounding.

B. Scholarly Research on Education. The second ground for the interpretive stance the author has brought to this research is his scholarly research of the meaning of education, particularly those reflections that consider what is fundamentally worthwhile about the act of education. Such ideas are representative of the scholarly ground to which the author was attentive during the time of the interviews, and during the interpretation and synthesis of the interviews. While this scholarly ground is held to have informed the research at hand with historical, sociological and philosophical understanding, the author makes no claim that this ground has been complete or unchangeable. Although a more extensive description of the author's scholarly research can be found in appendix two, the relationship between the thesis at hand and the author's previous scholarly research can be clearly stated.

A formative aspect of the author's scholarly research upon the study at hand was that the realms of human opinion about knowledge and human belief in personal commitment both required acknowledgement if participation was to truly take place during inservice activities. That is, the human give-and-take of any inservice process would require at least as much attention as the exchange of information involved.

Secondly, Renaissance idealism as well as the 1800's empirical dependence on direct observation was seen to be potentially integrated by the special purposes that a particular group decides they are aiming toward. That is, in concrete situations, peoples' inner motivation as well as their outer efforts contribute to worthwhile experiences. Inservice can then be more broadly defined to include both inspiring lecture and discussion group formats as well as workshops, curriculum development, and school-based collegiality.

Another working premise that arose from the author's academic study to contribute to the organization and interpretation of this thesis was that general education, especially continuing general education, has often been ignored in the drive to specialize. The roots of conflict between specialization and generalization are deep and many inservice activities have been regarded as too shallow by advocates of both camps.

Fourthly, the author's study upon the nature of character and the nature of dialogue led him to carefully choose the interviewees, and to be receptive to the beliefs and attitudes that were expressed throughout the interviews, and in the literature. Relations between students and teachers, teachers and teachers, and administrators and teachers were seen as cases in point of dialogue between individuals in society. Special attention was given to the balance between social responsibility and personal fulfillment.

By reference to the above four points as well as to the appendix two, the special nature of the author's research stance can be understood. Another person, with different concrete experiences and varying scholarly research efforts would perhaps not have seen the research literature or heard the interviews the same way.

Delimitations and Limitations of This Study

Delimitations

A number of delimitations were made in establishing the parameters of the study at hand. First, research interviews were made with five people, all of whom were previously teachers and either consultants or administrators. Also, all of the interviewees are high-achieving Ph.D students whose special, multiple perspectives on inservice teacher education as well as their serious reflection on their multiple roles was sought by the researcher. It is recognized that other valuable research could include the views of teachers as they undergo inservice experience, or the administrative experience of inservice could be focused upon.

Another delimitation of this research has been the author's resolution to describe in some detail his own interpretive stance. It is acknowledged that an alternate focus might constructively have converged on the interpretive stances of each interviewee.

This thesis does not expand on existing literature that reveals teacher preferences in subject-specific methods of inservice. Rather, worthwhile inservice teacher education was sought with special regard for the process of education, the beliefs and attitudes of educational professionals, and concepts that might lead to continuing education.

Although this study is involved with organizational aspects of inservice teacher education, the research has not set out to establish set procedures of inservice programming. Further, this research makes no effort to explain an over-arching rationale for a particular model of inservice teacher education.

Lastly, this study has aimed to uncover the meaning of concrete inservice experiences as revealed through qualitative methodology. Large-scale statistical research has not been undertaken although it has been represented in the review of the literature.

Limitations

The research at hand does not compare pre-service education with inservice education due to the plethora of pre-service information, that would expand this study to an unmanageable scope. Also it is acknowledged that by relying on an interview method, the quality of the research is influenced by the people available and willing to cooperate. In addition, the present study is limited by the present state of infancy of the inservice research field as well as the lack of extensive historical reference on the subject.

Footnotes to Chapter One

1. Michael Polanyi rejected scientific detachment. Instead he described personal knowledge which acknowledged the constant contribution of the researcher knowing what is being known, or reflecting on present activities. He contrasted this view with normal science's trivializing of research (Polanyi, 1968, p. 17). As an economist, Gunnar Myrdal was a seminal thinker who informed the social sciences that:

> There is an inescapable a priority element in all scientific work. Questions must be asked before answers are given. The questions are all expressions of our interest in the world; they are at bottom valuations. (Myrdal, 1969, p. 9)

Kuhn acknowledges the personal commitment that underlies scientific research; which is a commitment that in fact "runs the risk of being wrong" (Kuhn, 1969, p. 163). Jurgen Habermas revealed three fundamental cognitive human interests that underly all knowledge: 1) technical-cognitive interest in control, underlying empirical-analytical research 2) a practical cognitive interest in consensus, underlying the hermenuetic-historical approach 3) a critical cognitive interest in emancipation, underlying the self-reflective approach (Habermas, 1972, p. 313). Habermas further claimed that a research effort aimed at participation held a validity claim that is as valid as normative truth claims (Habermas, 1979, p. 2). James B. Macdonald (1975, 1977), and Ted T. Aoki (1978) have expanded on Habermas' notions of the interests inherent in the researcher's stance. They point out that it is essential to realize that all research is value-laden, and that the value-premises upon which knowledge is created must be explicated. Williams has cited sociological roots of revealing one's interpretive stance in doing research. He refers to the interactionism of H. Blumer and G. H. Mead. Therein, interchange points to active participation which reaches beyond personal intimacy to the cooperative collection and organization of information (Williams, 1981). Nico Stehr adds that sociological interactionism, as such, has spawned variations such as Alfred Schutz' "phenomenological interactionism", Harold Garfinkel's "ethnomethodology", George Homans' "exchange model" and Erving Goffman's "dramaturgical model". (Stehr, 1983, p. 55).

2. The realization that making school changes required a problematic more than a simplistic logistical stance of research appears to have originated with Joseph Schwab's University of Chicago mentor, Richard McKeon. McKeon made an analysis of the Science(s) of the Practical consisting of: 1) dialectic, that treats theory and practice as a unity. Ideals are considered, in powerful forms of analysis. He added the caveat

that coercion herein sometimes ended endless argument. 2) logistic, wherein practice has no intrinsic rational motivation or basis; instead scientific observation guides one toward a recognition of needs. He warned this mode is sometimes simply not applicable 3) problematic, wherein inquiry treats problems as they occur, embedded situationally. He termed this "the practical" (McKeon, 1952, pp. 79-100; Olson, 1982, p. 90).

Schwab further emphasized concrete transaction in education practice in his description of knowledge that is "practical", "quasi-practical", and eclectic" (Schwab, 1978, pp. 287-303, originally 1971). Such knowledge, Schwab believed, was expressed in action whose ends were in view, attained through "deliberation and tactic" on the part of community members, teachers, administrators and students (Schwab, 1973, pp. 501-522; Schwab in Walker, 1975, p. viii). In his perspective, theory may seek knowledge but a "practical" constitution seeks knowledge purposefully.

Kenneth Strike (1979) has elucidated an epistemology of practical research wherein facts and values are integrated. The two main research requirements he cites are 1) continuity and 2) the provision of a clearly enunciated field "back loop" to learn from mistakes made (p. 14).

3. One wonders if any of the administrative staff were aware of the Freirian concept of "coordinator of a cultural circle" that pin-pointed the efficacy of education that was built around familiarity and faith in a member of the community who is at once competent, critical and humble (Freire, 1971, pp. 55-57).

Chapter 2

A Review of Inservice Teacher Education Literature

An Historical Overview of Inservice Education.

This overview will detail American inservice teacher education and touch upon European inservice, while describing recently invigorated inservice practises in Britain and Canada.

Inservice in the United States. In the early 1800's in America there were few even modestly educated teachers. Many teachers of that era had only a superficial grasp of English and Mathematics, and they were regarded as generally incapable of reflecting upon and improving their own teaching (Tyack, 1967, p. 415). Yet Horace Mann inspired many fellow citizens to regard teacher Normal Schools as the mainspring of the whole public school system that he had vigorously advocated. By 1846 the first publically-funded Normal School was established at Bridgewater, Massachussetts, and from the late 1800's until about 1920 a "quantitative expansion" took place in the field of teacher education (Axtelle, 1940, pp. 32-33).

By the 1890's, the United States was beginning to recover from the Civil War, and Teachers' Institutes were formed to up-grade common school teachers in their understanding of subject matter. The Teachers' Institutes served a stop-gap function in giving temporary relief to the pressing needs for teacher upgrading, while Normal Schools slowly gained acceptance (Richey, 1957, p. 42).

As the Normal Schools began to graduate teachers, these teachers travelled throughout the country, often speaking at Teachers' Institutes. Soon, the typical subject-content review of the Institutes began to be thereby displaced by an emphasis on methods and pedagogic principles. Inservice that had been aimed at fulfilling basic needs of backward systems and poorer teachers became vastly improved. By the 1920's inservice included Summer Normal Schools, evening extension courses, local teachers' reading circles, classroom supervision and consultation, and correspondence courses (Richey, 1957, pp. 43-52). Thus, a previously narrow inservice emphasis on limited subject matter expanded to include cultural expression, pedagogy, specialist councils in vocation education, art, music, and home education, as well as management according to "scientific" principles and the provision of distance education.

By the 1920's, admission requirements in Normal Schools had risen, and by 1930 a high school certificate was required to enter teacher training college. From the mid-twenties until the 1940's, this growing professionalization, along with the burgeoning of psychological theories encouraged inservice to be conceived as an on-going research experiment (Schaefer, 1944), and to become less authoritatively managed, and more akin to guidance (Richey, 1957, p. 58).

Inservice in the 1950's most often took the form of a workshop wherein teachers worked together with a resource person and a curriculum director. At the same time "action research" was undertaken by practitioners focusing on concrete problem situations, toward methodological resolution (Richey, 1957, pp. 62-63). Amid a serious shortage of teachers, growing pressure toward high achievement in "fundamental" subjects, and racial integration struggles (Gumbert and Spring, 1974, pp. 38-39) inservice grew manifold through workshops, conferences and inter-agency planning groups, i.e. university professors of physics, teachers and parents (Church, 1976, p. 413; Cremin, 1961, p. 337). Consequently, inservice education became a central and promising endeavour of educators in the 1950's (Henry, 1957).

Yet, in the 1960's this promise was largely diminished, both through the degeneration of teacher and administration cooperation into a hierarchal manipulation of "clinical supervision", and through the rapid expansion of the curriculum field (Joyce, 1981, p. 115). Some inservice writers contend that much education waned from the flight from practical field concerns to large-scale programming, disregard of evaluation with the emphasis on curriculum planning, ignorance of the teacher's role, and systematic management that glossed over underlying value assumptions (Connelly and Albaz, 1980, p. 96). Large-scale programming of curriculum was paralleled by wide-ranging, generalized theorizing that cast teacher education programs as "models". Yet this drive failed to grasp teacher education in the field (Clarke, 1971, p. 154).

From the late 1970's to the present, long term curriculum change has been made more successful through increasing collaboration and dialogue among teachers, students and researchers through inservice (Wallace and Smith, 1978, pp. 111-146). We presently see inservice teacher education becoming a vital concern for many other reasons: 1) Strong teachers' organizations demand professional development. 2) Existing tension between public alarm about falling student test scores and the consequent professional concern about a poor image. 3) Economic uncertainty that has increased the length of tenure of teachers which de-emphasizes preservice education in favour of an "on-the-job" focus of inservice. 4) In the face of economic stress, school-districts and larger governing bodies are becoming aware that municipal expenditures through inservice are substantially less than preservice costs at the provincial or state level. 5) The present acceleration of new knowledge in all fields that demands the cultivation of continuing education.

To reiterate, prior to the late 1800's in America, inservice education as such was non-existent. By the 1890's, Teacher Institutes were formed to upgrade common school teachers in their proficiency of subject-matter. Between 1890 and 1920, Normal school graduates were altering the quality and directions of the Teacher Institutes by emphasizing methods and pedagogic principles. This thrust resulted in the "quantitative expansion" of inservice in the formation of Summer schools, evening extension courses, classroom supervision, correspondence courses and teachers' reading circles. From the 1920's until the 1940's, experimentation and collegial guidance were the key motivators in inservice. Until very recently, the 1950's represented the high-point of interest in inservice teacher education as workshops and action research proliferated. In the 1960's inservice practises narrowed in scope as behavioural managerialism grew along with the presentation of pre-packaged materials. American educators of the mid 1970's until today have begun to realize the importance of inservice teacher education. This realization is deepened by socio-economic pressures and the failure of mechanical programming to evoke constructive educative change.

Inservice in Europe. The first regularly organized inservice in Europe was at a teachers' seminar in Halle, Germany, 1706. By the end of the 18th century, thirty such institutions existed, and teachers were expected to attend monthly meetings to extend their general knowledge. Also, there were larger annual conferences that were subject-specific, and two local conferences each year that were, like the monthly meetings, general in focus. Each seminar group remained in contact with other groups within a six mile radius (Taylor, 1978, p. 161).

Such a strong commitment to continuing inservice has not been consistently maintained, but inservice is currently well supported in Europe (Taylor, 1978, Part IV): for example in Germany, inservice presently is aimed at improving professional practice - enabling teachers to reflect critically toward improving their teaching. At the same time, Universities give distance inservice through tele-communications, radio, and writing inter-change that is for credit (Taylor, 1978, p. 170).

In France, inservice emphasizes psychological and sociological insights, and is enthusiastically searching new models of understanding toward changing teacher attitudes. Surveys of teachers in Belgium call for more than a laissez-faire organization of inservice. Netherlands is planning compulsory inservice. Denmark has four days of compulsory inservice annually. Also, 50% of Danish teachers are enrolled in University upgrading. Austria is turning to compulsory inservice (Taylor, 1978, pp. 166-170).

The Swedish National Board of Education has five categories of inservice: 1) inservice linked to basic training 2) inservice at the local level to decide content

3) inservice connected to national and regional councils 4) inservice connected with curriculum development and school reform 5) inservice to satisfy individual needs. Acknowledging the expense, the Swedish Board of Education stated they would like regional planning conferences to establish eight weeks of supervised induction (Taylor, 1978, Part IV; Bolam, 1982, Part I; Henderson, 1981, p. 5).

In Switzerland, teachers are encouraged to take educational leaves of six months, with financial aid from business, government and the school district. In Turkey, a massive government program recently allowed 15,000 primary school teachers to attend summer schools to prepare them to teach at the junior level as well (Taylor, 1978, Part IV).

Inservice in Britain. In Britain, during the late 1800's, isolated groups of teachers carried on "self-improvement meetings". The subsequent formation of local teachers' associations stimulated an increase in this kind of activity. By the early 1900's, summer schools for teachers were established by the Department of Art and Science which was later to become the Department of Education and Science (Henderson and Perry, 1981, pp. 5-15).

By the 1950's, numerous ad hoc refresher courses were locally supported to meet the demands of the day. During the later 1960's and early 1970's, prominent government reports such as the Newsom, Plowden, Gittins, and James Report all recommended the expansion of inservice education (Henderson and Perry, 1981, p. 7).

The James Report was particularly influential in altering inservice in Britain, as it emphasized a school-based focus of inservice education:

> Inservice training should begin in the schools. It is here that learning and teaching take place, curricula and techniques are developed and needs and deficiencies revealed. Every school should regard the continued training of its teachers as an esssential part of its task, for which all members of staff share responsibility. (Department of Education and Science, 1972, paragraph 2.21).

The quantitative expansion of inservice in Britain that resulted from the impact of the above reports as well as the White and the Green Papers that followed them, had to become tempered by concerns for the quality of inservice. For example, the new concept of school-based inservice met the needs of teachers as professionals, which prior to the various reports had been course-based inservice, which met the needs of teachers as employees. Recently, both personal and societal needs have been addressed in school-focussed inservice by multiple interest groups such as the wider community and university personnel at the same time as identifying this composite groups' primary aim as the improvement of the school situation itself (Henderson, 1979, pp. 17-25).

Although the 1960's found Americans characteristically seeking effectiveness in programmatic curriculum change, the British sought to institutionalize quality inservice through teacher education (Henderson and Perry, 1981, p. 7). Thus, an Inservice B.Ed. became a fact soon after I.N.S.E.T. (Inservice Education and Training) began to emerge in Britain (Seaborne, 1981, p. 134). Also, teacher-centres arose throughout Britain, serving as resource centres, meeting-places and curriculum development combines. Teachers were afforded constructive criticism by the additional teacher-tutors who were invited from staff to staff, and an Open-University made school-focussed inservice a fact more than an ideal (Henderson, 1981, p. 8).

British teacher centers arose in response to the expansion and rapid change of ideas in many of the subject-fields, that teachers realized had to somehow be included in the curriculum. Slow percolation of these new ideas was not enough as information began to explode after the second world war. A few centers formed with the impetus of the 1944 Education Act, and by 1970, 300 centres existed in forms as various as one room meeting-places to multi-level, polished institutions (Schools Council Publications, 1970, pp. 5-10).

The British respect and concern for inservice education is also indicated by the establishment of The British Journal of Inservice Education, in 1976. The consistent concern for inservice in Britain during the 1970's until the present can be generally ascribed to: 1) the impact of the James Report and other such government reports 2) teachers' demand to upgrade their qualifications 3) the "implosion" of teachers' centres in Britain 4) government funding to education institutes being made dependent on each organizations's 20% budgetary commitment to inservice (Burns, 1976, pp. 26-34).

That America has much to learn from Britain regarding inservice has been described by teachers from both countries who participated in an exchange between British and American teacher-centres. Among other things, the British centres were understood as more diverse, more autonomous, and more oriented to making curriculum change (Edelfelt and Hruska, 1982, pp. 80-88).

Curriculum development has received higher rank in Britain than inservice, because while curriculum developers defined aims and objectives and made evaluations of programs, inservice activity was alloted the task of imparting and reinforcing the results of successful curriculum development (Schools Council Publications, 1970, p. 22). With such a secondary role, it is possible that in the economic press of the 1980's, inservice training may become an early casualty in Britain; and teacher centers may find the scope of their activities considerably reduced. Thus experimentation and expansion in British teacher education may soon give away to evaluation and accountability (Redknap, 1977, pp. 101-107).

Inservice in Canada. Many of the socio-economic problems and issues influencing past preservice teacher education probably also placed great demands on the teachers already in service in Canadian schools, i.e. supply and demand of teachers, the Canadianization of immigrants, rural education, and secondary preparation concerns (Patterson in Lampard, 1976, p. 10-26). Yet little is known about the effects and impact of past or present inservice education in Canada, although it has recently proliferated "to an astonishing amount" (O.E.C.D., 1978, p. 12). Conservatively, Canadian inservice education presently costs $200,000,000 annually, or about $500 annually per teacher (Ryan, 1983, p. 8).

General observations about Canadian inservice have recently been drawn. Inservice teacher education in Canada has been seen to be aimed mainly toward: 1) solving problems in the 13-16 year age group 2) the needs of special education, including minorities such as native Indians 3) subject specialty orientations 4) facing community demands, and new teacher responsibilities, such as computer literacy 5) middle-management upgrading (of principals) (Bolam, 1982, pp. 41-76). However, it has been argued (Fullan, 1980, p. 6) that much of the current inservice activity has been ineffective because the school environment was ignored, evaluation and follow-up seldom took place, and conceptual planning was sparse.

The British recognition of "school-focussed" inservice has received notice in Canadian research, but concrete procedures for establishing this focus have not yet been widely made between school and university jurisdictions (Wideen and Hopkins, in press, p. 1). Nevertheless, changing approaches that stress inservice partnership between school districts and the wider community have been initiated both at the school district level (Buski and Small, 1982, pp. 39-41; Buski and Small, 1983, pp. 3-6), and at the university level (Worth in Stewart, 1979).

Fullan (1980) explains that inservice teacher education is animated provincially, through several agencies: the Ministry of Education, university faculties of education, school districts, and teacher federations. Further, there is little integration of these various efforts, although inservice activities are expanding, through all agencies, yearly. As school enrolments have declined the teaching staff is consequently experiencing a diminished influx in its membership, and so inservice is sought for revitalization. A province-wide conference on inservice was held in British Columbia in 1979, and at the same time the combined agencies mentioned above were engaged in innumerable ad hoc inservice activities, increasingly aimed toward meeting curriculum guidelines (Fullan, 1980, p. 60). In addition, Fullan cites the serious need for district planning and coordination of inservice activities, which may include sustained, integrative fieldwork with universities. Hopkins and

Wideen (1984, p. 223) point out that such improvement may be facilitated by increasing our self-reflection, developing supportive rather than controlling intentions, admitting the complexity of the situation, and sustaining a tolerance for diversity.

Recent Research in the Field on Inservice.

Current inservice teacher education research can be associated with a broad terminological spectrum: inservice development, inservice training, curriculum innovation and implementation, organizational renewal, staff development, personnel education, continuing teacher education, and professional development. All of the aforementioned terms arise within manifold areas of concern that have a common interest in the job-related education of teachers.

Inservice that consists of "one-shot", short-term bandaging of the effects of deeper schooling problems has long been criticized (Hopkins, 1919, pp. 50-55; Taba, 1962, p. 464; Jarolimek, 1970, p. 329; Macdonald, 1975, O.E.C.D., 1978, pp. 45-46). Corrigan and Howey (1980) add that "It is imperative that new directions in teacher education be embedded in and consonant with equally innovative directions in school renewal. Major reform in one cannot occur without concurrent major reform in the other" (p. 198). Thus they conceive of inservice education progressing alongside other schooling reforms such as deeper parent involvement, reduction of class size, an individual school-planning emphasis, an emphasis on academic freedom through responsible choice by students and teachers, flexible timing, stronger community links, and an on-going re-examination of teacher roles (Corrigan and Howey, 1980, pp. 200-205).

This shift in the quality of research can be regarded in a number of ways. It could be seen as a change from naive, logistic development, to a recognition of the problematic quality of any school change. Whether from the vantage point of professional development or from curriculum implementation programming, the move from the drawing board to actual school experience can no longer be regarded as unproblematic (Tomkins et al, 1981, pp. 48-55; Fullan, 1977, p. 337).

Then again, current changes in the research on inservice teacher education may result in part from the increasing recognition that we cannot automatically rely on personal professional upgrading on the part of individual teachers to make coordinated programmatic efforts that benefit the wider society (Howey, 1976, p. 25). Teacher-training that has focused on the individual had little impact on change in the schools and on those teachers' peers (Corwin and Edelfelt, 1977, p. viii). On the other hand, monocular research emphasizing large-scale, de-personalized program change has also failed (Weiss, 1978; Stake and Easley, 1978; Berman and McLaughlin, 1978; Henderson and Perry, 1981, pp. 24-25).

However, the long term value to school organizations that comes from teachers sharing their educative experience directly with colleagues and within school programs is recognized (Berman and Friedewitzer, 1981, pp. 51-57). The importance of coordinating institutional needs and resources with those of the individual in inservice activities cannot be overstated (Howey, 1976; Corwin and Edelfelt, 1977; Berman and McLaughlin, 1978; Urick et al, 1981; Henderson and Perry, 1981). What is called for is an amalgam of an organizational climate of readiness, a strong commitment to participatory will and a developing awareness of a shared understanding of alternatives and limitations upon persons as well as the organization as a whole (Urick et al, 1981, pp. 546-549).

Recent research in the field of inservice will now be considered in terms three major issues that arise in the readings: 1) why inservice has not succeeded; 2) the teacher in inservice teacher education; 3) models and approaches to inservice.

Why Inservice Has Not Succeeded.

In a recent, extensive canvassing of American teachers about their inservice experiences, 75% categorized these experiences as "fair to bad" (Howey, 1983, p. 22). Areas that were found particularly lacking were: teacher involvement, release-time, follow-up activities, the fragmented nature of presentations, little time allotment for observation, feedback, and cooperative planning needs.

Yet, a previous large scale survey of 7,500 American elementary and secondary teachers' views on their inservice experiences revealed that those teachers who were most positive about their professional life in general had correspondingly favourable views on their inservice experiences (Osbourne, 1977, p. 25). The attitude of the teacher toward his or her profession would seem to have more significance than the quality of a particular inservice, in this case.

Nevertheless, specific criticisms of inservice teacher education procedures have been made. A major reason for faulty inservice has been cited as over-simplification of the process. Research has questioned the linear progression of needs-assessment questionnaires, subsequent training workshops, followed by testing of students to measure the effects of "treated" teaching upon student achievement (Edelfelt and Smith, 1978, pp. 1-5). The linear sequencing of a set questionnaire followed by undifferentiated, prescribed treatment of all teachers fails to address the complex, long-term aspects of teacher education. Fullan (1978) informs us that to succeed in implementing educational

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change institutionally, five elements must be transformed: 1) the structure or organization of the group, 2) materials, 3) behaviour, roles of participants, 4) knowledge and understanding, 5) the participants' value commitments, or internalization of the change. Importantly, Fullan claims that the last three changes must first take place within the individual, then changes are brought about in materials and group organization. Clearly, "do-it-yourself" inservice recipes could not address these and other factors such as mandates for multi-cultural needs and purposes as well as preparing for the special nature of handicapped mainstreaming (Johnson, 1980, p. IX).

The teacher's commitment to realizing particular school goals through inservice teacher education has been noted as vital (Mangieri, 1971, pp. 110-112). Yet the teacher's commitment cannot be assumed in the face of social ambiguities the teacher confronts in making school changes: 1) "When is the job done, and how do I know?" That is, how is progress determined?, 2) "Who's in charge here?" Does the inservice or curriculum change alter student-teacher roles of partnership, learning etc?, 3) "Is time-tabling going to be altered?" For example, will the best students be siphoned-off for a month for demonstration purposes?" 4) "Who's on my side?" That is are parents, employees, university personnel in accord about inservice procedures? 5) "Is this what they want me to do?" Will this inservice transgress any norms held by various interest groups? 7) "Is this going to be an arduous task or quick and easy?" (Olson, 1980, pp. 1-11).

So, many inservice activities flounder because various interest groups try to work at cross-purposes through them. Underlying political reasoning undercuts the effect of some research. For example, a teacher association may withhold their support of a call to higher standards in training and certification, claiming such new standards impose on "teacher welfare". Yarger (1981) proposes the foundation of an independent National Committee on Excellence in Education that would pay particular attention to teacher education, toward transcending partisan decision-making.

In addition to the above concerns, teachers' participation in an inservice is not likely to be galvanized without a clear sense of purpose having been established within that teacher. "Isolation of an act from a purpose makes it mechanical" (Dewey, 1929, p. 162). This is no less true for teachers than it is for students. Regarding the intrinsic motivation for the teacher's involvement in inservice, Howey and Gardner (1983) deny that "the trinkets of credit, stipend and release time" are highly relevant (p. 188). Such tangible rewards were similarly found to be of little incentive to teachers in a 1980 survey (Yarger et al, 1980). Yet it has been maintained that release from teaching is of higher incentive in commiting oneself to inservice activity than is credit or salary rewards (O.E.C.D., 1978, p. 16).

The literature provided further insight into the failure of inservice activities due to teachers' attitudes. In part due to little release-time from everyday duties, little opportunity for cooperative planning and less follow-up activity, a teacher's sense of involvement in inservice education is often fragmentary and inconsistent (Howey, 1983). Even though a teacher's commitment to inservice is vital to the success of a program (Mangieri, 1976, pp. 110-112; Osbourne, 1977, p. 25), much inservice takes the form of bureaucratic problem-solving that ignores teacher capabilities and attitudes (Harris et al, 1969, p. 4; Blair, 1982). While a narrowly technical-structural approach to inservice doesn't account for either social ambiguities or personal commitment, the degree that teachers believe in themselves and succeed with students are major factors of inservice progress (Fullan et al, 1980, pp. 121-183).

Because social ambiguities and personal commitment are becoming increasingly recognized as part of the complex mosaic of inservice, organizational development research is therefore altering its former technical-structural approach toward recognition of the necessity of orienting change with the people concerned (Fullan et al, 1980, pp. 121-183). Correspondingly, successful inservices have been described as those that have improved resources as a means to the end of better teaching-learning, have included long-term evaluation of changes in the field, and have required the intelligent integration of revisions by participants (Ross, 1982, pp. 126-136). Although the importance of coordinating teacher and institutional needs is well documented, teachers are less engaged in job-embedded, job-related or career-credentialed inservice than they are occupied in personal development or general subject study (Ferver, 1981, p. 26).

The literature has called our attention to the fact that too little care is given through inservice activities to special problems and circumstances of particular locales (Parish and Arends, 1983, pp. 62-65). Perhaps this dearth of care is assisted by the fact that two-thirds of the research on inservice is done by University personnel (Lawrence, 1981). A lingering policy of research isolationism on the part of universities is a source of cynicism at the school district level that hampers progress in inservice research (Joyce, 1981, p. 121).

University certification and accreditation have served to upgrade and extend inservice education, but are now exerting a powerful normative influence as to the quality, quantity and timing of such activities (Howey et al, 1978, Introduction). A finer-tuning of cross-institutional communication could improve this inservice stumbling-block. Isolationist privatism that separates reflective research from continuing teacher education in schools is an unwanted source of cynicism which hampers critical improvements in inservice teacher education (Joyce, 1981, p. 121).

Another criticism of inservice has been the absence of evaluation in its process. As the "missing link", evaluation could provide an accountability of costs, reveal the needs of organizers and teachers, in addition to measuring and comparing changes made (Donoughue, 1981, Chapter 25). The lack of formative evaluation throughout inservice has resulted in disjointed workshops, irrelevant staff development efforts, and little comprehensive planning to achieve whole-staff goals (Joyce, 1977, p. 2). Nevertheless, Lawrence's (1981) meta-analysis of 6,000 professional development documents enabled him to conclude that truly formative evaluation of inservice activities has been improving through the 1960's and '70's. He stressed the growing recognition of the dual aspect of formative evaluation: receptive and active roles for teachers and administrators alike.

Evaluation of inservice teacher education is an important but as yet greatly unfulfilled area for scholarly research as few longitudinal studies of teacher education exist (Joyce, 1977; Donoughue, 1981, Chapter 25; Ratsoy, 1984). A danger exists in evaluation research in that while knowledge and skill may be easily gauged, vital attitudinal factors may be overlooked because they are more difficult to seize (Belanger, 1984). That is, research may concentrate itself on what makes teachers effective, according to some currently popular criterion, rather than on what explains the actions of teachers. Historically, the summative focus of evaluation practices during inservice has ignored the active role of teachers in favour of program delivery (Shapiro et al, 1984, p. 23). Perhaps before seeking behavioural change there ought to be found out why teachers are behaving as they do now. Then, as Cronbach (1980, p. 2) informs us, evaluation is a handmaiden to gradualism, for it is both conservative and commited to change. Similar to Alice Miel's (1946) realization that school changes must be analyzed in terms of the people engaged in the change process, Clegg et al (1978) have recognized the necessity of establishing clear procedural arrangements between teachers, administrators and the community at large so that a continuous feedback on inservice education efforts can be provided. Willing clarification of procedural arrangements amongst all participants indicates their acceptance that all school change is problematic, and allows for a more careful grasp of formative evaluation activities (Tomkins et al, 1981, pp. 48-55); Keast, 1982). Recent inservices that have improved teaching and resources may be characterized as including intelligent revision by participants and long-term evaluation of changes in the field (Ross, 1982, pp. 126-136). Such careful evaluation may include concerns for personal development, career progress, societal pressure for change, and job-specific problems (Howey, 1976).

Holly and Blackman (1983) state that for inservice to improve, evaluation should not be confused with prescription. That is, the "make 'em learn" attitude underlying remedial inservice should be disposed of. Also, respect and responsibility might constructively be shifted to principals' shoulders as inservice evaluation rightly expands on school sites. Reflection upon action, understanding the educational context, and inquiry methods can contribute to formative evaluation of inservice (Wideen, 1984; Grimmett, 1984). While reinforcing the importance of the implementation process during inservice evaluation, Boulanger and Wideen (1984, p. 18) describe three evaluation problems that arose in their provincial study: 1) clarification of the purpose of the evaluation was needed, relative to various audiences and to student learning, 2) evaluations often lacked comprehensiveness and methodological breadth that could properly lead to an assessment of implementation potential, 3) hazy, unfocused vision of long-term purposes for the use of the evaluation results.

To reiterate, five major reasons that inservice has not succeeded are: 1) over-simplification of the inservice process, 2) existing social ambiguities of the school milieu, 3) galvanizing teachers' personal commitment can be difficult, 4) the universities exert normative influences, 5) evaluation practices are usually weak or absent during inservice teacher education.

Of course, inservice doesn't exist in a stabilized state or in a vacuum. The reasons for inservice being ineffectual may also be conceived in the form of a flux of supports and constraints (Burdin, 1978). Supporting factors exist, for example, in the growing classes of special education in public schools, bilingual and ethnic education increase, expanding seniors' education interests, the extensive turn-over of career choices, and the recent stress on accounting as to how subjects are taught as well as what is taught. Factors that constrain inservice activities include taxpayers' resistance to additional costs, the plethora of teachers available, heavy day-to-day loads carried by teachers in their classes, adversarial relations between some teachers and administrators, and lastly inadequate conceptualization of the terms "inservice" and "continuing education".

The Teacher in Inservice Teacher Education

The general public appears to regard teachers as the single most important factor in making improvements in schools (1979 Gallup Poll cited in Zumwalt, 1982, p. 215). Correspondingly, a major O.E.C.D. study initiated in 1981 that focused on 990 British teachers concluded that their most prevalent definition of inservice was "the improvement of the teacher's performance in the classroom" (Bolam, 1982). Certainly the heuristic nature of research and development undertaken by classroom teachers is widely recognized (De Rose et al, 1978, p. 627). However, the recent recognition being given to inservice education is perhaps more of an indication of a "back-up of deficit" as a result of preservice and induction inadequacies, rather than a true realization of the vital need for the continuing education of teachers.

Colin McCabe (1980) cites inservice within the medical profession that could be associated to educational inservice toward addressing both induction inadequacies and the continuing education of established teachers. He explains that the Royal College of General Practitioners, in Britain, has designed experimental courses aimed at transforming practising general practitioners into "General Practitioner Trainers" (their modest use of the word "trainer" is noted).

These courses took place in the doctors' regular work place, organized in small study groups which sought honest appraisal of each doctor's strengths and weaknesses. Within these evaluative study groups, each doctor had a "safe house" of a smaller group of colleagues who would strive to support him or her throughout the ongoing evaluative appraisal. It was found that the doctors involved developed a special attitude within the demands of the course. That is, because inservice was carried on in a critically constructive spirit of preparing doctors to prepare new doctors, intolerance and resentment between administration and staff was short-circuited (McCabe, 1980, pp. 116-119). Surely, inservice teacher education that is focused on preparing teachers to prepare new teachers could similarly inspire those teachers into "taking the fire of teaching".

The school revisions of the Great Britain Schools Council and the Nuffield Foundation that preceded the inservice of the Royal College of General Practitioners likewise maintained a central commitment to the teachers' discovery and inquiry in the process of revision. The same commitment in conducting inservice teacher education could similarly lead to inservice that is "speculative rather than evangelical, and cumulative rather than ad hoc" (Stenhouse, 1980, pp. 141-142).

Historically, the reasons inservice has been called for were varied. The immaturity of teachers entering the profession was complicated by an unevenness of preparation standards in teachers colleges and normal schools. Heavy classroom responsibilities, the complex nature of teaching, and the isolation of the teacher's work world has proven formidable even for top-notch teachers. A constant change of curriculum and methods is taking place as well. Until 1940, inservice activities were primarily directed to teachers whose students were suffering from their poor teaching. Serious discrepancies in the quality of various teacher training courses often made needs acutely plain (Corey, 1957, p. 2). Corey has stated that teacher needs could be best understood through collegial relations or through sympathetic supervision.

There can be little doubt of the value of participation and collaboration amongst various levels of staff during inservice activity (Berman and Friedewitzer, 1981; Urick et al, 1981). Many kinds of participation have proven valuable, such as the enactment of teaching skills by demonstration, practice with peers in simulated and actual conditions, structured small-group feedback in video and dialogue, and mutual planning toward actual school applications (Woods, 1982). Zigarmi and associates (1977) found teachers preferred inservice that informed them of current trends and innovations when peer interaction was provided. When teachers participate as planners and decision-makers for inservice, high regard for the ensuing teacher education activities has resulted (Hache, 1976; Dawson, 1978; Kormos and Enns, 1979). When inservice activities enabled teachers to work with teachers on a continuing basis, from a cooperatively-planned agenda, the participating teachers considered the inservice to be worthwhile (Miller, 1977, pp. 31-34).

In addition to the kinds of activities that transpire in inservice education, the individual development of each teacher involved is optimally a part of responsive inservice. Of course, gross distinctions such as preservice, induction and inservice stages need to be made in considering teacher education. But finer distinctions of teacher development have also been applied to inservice education itself. Teachers' progressive involvement in inservice has been seen to alter their attitude towards school innovations in general, and change both their level of use and their perception of innovations as they occur (Hall, 1978). Teachers' years of experience have seriously affected their inservice participation, particularly with regard to their expectations, aspirations, and different satisfactions obtained (Anderson, 1979). All teachers' developmental needs and preferences should not be ignored because the lowest common denominator of teachers may have ignored their students' needs during inservice activity (Sharpe and Talbert, 1982; Willard and Garner, 1982).

Teacher development in inservice has been described in terms of differing job-skills, knowledge, behaviours and attitudes that teachers have during different points in their career. Three particular stages of teacher development have been noted: 1) the survival stage of the first year or so a teacher enters the profession, 2) adjustment or mastery stage, of two or four years during which planning, organization and curriculum methods are emphasized, 3) mature or impact stage, when the experienced teacher is confident and willing to try new methods (Fuller, 1969; Fuller and Brown, 1975). Corresponding with these stages of teacher development, Burden (1983) submits that there exist related teacher concerns. At the survival stage teachers are self-oriented. During the adjustment stage they are centered on self as teacher. Lastly, Burden claims they are pupil-centered during their mature stage of development. Administrative changes that Burden, and earlier Glickman (1980), say might also be conceived to align themselves with teachers' developmental stages would be: 1) directive supervision of teachers in the survival stage, 2) collaborative supervision of adjustment stage teachers and, 3) a non-directive emphasis on inservice self-reliance for mature teachers.

Two caveats are offered with regard to viewing inservice education under the lens of developmental stages of teacher growth. Mertens and Yarger (1982) point out that many teachers with maturity of experience simultaneously have survival needs. That is, these developmental stages shouldn't be regarded as mutually exclusive. Feiman and Floden (1981) note that several types of development may be observed in teachers - cognitive, style, and attitude of learning. Therefore they advise against viewing teachers' developmental stages as an inservice education panacea, but simply as another lense to study and improve its practise.

There is a great deal of support among teachers for maintaining a special place for teacher development to occur. Locally, neither Alberta teachers, trustees, nor the Department of Education appear to have greatly desired special centers to carry out inservice (Hrabi, 1976, p. 52). Yet the concepts of school focused inservice, and teacher centers have become increasingly central in the teacher education literature. There is no doubt that place itself is of major relevance to the formation of successful inservice activities. Schools are themselves described as a valuable centers of inquiry so that the principal, in a tactical position, can transform possible adversarial roles (between teachers, administrators, university personnel and the wider community) into collegial relationships (Barth, 1981, p. 161). Unusual settings such as biological stations, museums, and planetaria are viewed as rich in potential for successful inservice experiences among teams of teachers (Sharpe and Talbert, 1982). Teacher centers have had the most phenomenal acceptance as a linking agency between teachers at various stages of their careers (Burke, 1980, pp. 228-234).

Mertens (1982, p. 65) explains that teacher centers have evolved from the premise that the appropriate foundation for inservice education is teacher-perceived needs. From studying 52 American teacher centers, Mertens (1982) further described the centers as optimally providing teachers a collegial, supportive environment, accessibility of place and time on a continuing basis, current and credible sources of knowledge as well as high-profile responsibilities to both teacher and student needs.

Schmieder and Yarger (1974, p. 5) inform us that although the 600 American teacher centers they studied exist under a diversity of names such as staff development center, educational cooperative, training complex, learning resources center, and community clinic, a typology of learning centers could be developed that might describe their common structures. These types were: 1) the independent teaching center, voluntarily run by local teachers - sensitive to individual need, highly flexible, financially unstable, 2) almost independent center, linked to a college or public school system - voluntary participation, with the needs of clients or program leaders uppermost, 3) professional organization teacher center, existing as a negotiated resource or as a subject area resource - the professional organization is dominant and the interests narrowed; few exist, 4) single unit teaching center, very common, is administered by a single educational institution; thoroughly developed institutional goals exist, 5) free partnership teaching center, usually involving a school system and a university; not politically legislated, the partnership evolves programs accommodating goals and needs of both parties, 6) free consortium teaching center, which is characterized by three or more institutions willingly pooling their organization, commitments and policy considerations; generalized program development usually results from this complex center, 7) the legislative, political consortium, which is constituted by legislative mandate; state and county models exist, and programs are complex, varied.

Yet such a typology of teacher centers is not pure or consistently representative of actual sites (Schmeider and Yarger, 1974, p. 8). In fact, teacher centers can be generally exemplified as unique, and more responsive to particular individuals and systems than to any set model (Taque, 1976, p. 20). However, most teacher centers amalgamate four services: library, audio-visual resources, original learning activities and instructional development (Peterson, 1975). The teacher center has been described as the meeting place of a mutually dependent community that wishes to take a critical look at their present practise (Apelman, 1979; De Vaney, 1979, p. 21).

Models and Approaches to Inservice Teacher Education

Approaches. In a 1978 volume of Theory into Practise devoted to staff development research, the editorial preface by Richard Hersh explained that research had only just begun to conceptualize solutions to inservice problems. Teacher centers, the personalization of teacher education, and exploration of peer support were three of the main issues cited as essential to making research progress. Emrick (1980, p. 446) concurred that more research is needed to inform us what collaboration in inservice means - organizationaly, and for the individual. Westbury (1975) developed an inservice model, but stressed the necessity of cooperation among administrators and master teachers to implement any such model.

Forms of collaborative research methodology considered favourable to improving inservice are regarded as school focused: 1) action research, wherein University personnel provide research know-how to class level teachers, 2) Faculty in residence programs, where a resident scholar provides long-term concrete advice drawing upon an extensive research background, 3) master teachers, who in turn help to educate fellow-teachers (Swenson, 1981). Portner (1982) has reported a highly structured inservice education program that was nevertheless well-received and in effect self-renewing. Having drawn up their own inservice contracts, district teachers undertook variform paths of inservice, according to their professional interests, and with local administration support. Upon completion of their contract they were then trained as consultants to the general inservice program in which they had just taken part. Reasons for the success of such "master teacher" approaches to inservice have been cited by Nelson et al, (1983): 1) the inservice allowed for risks to be taken, so that new ideas were valued more than possible failures, 2) individual flexibility, 3) skills were gained that built participants' confidence and public respect, 4) graduate programs of study could be met without leaving one's own class.

Another major approach to inservice in research has been the examination of "best practise" statements by teachers. Such research enabled Hutson (1979) to state well-received inservice procedures. The best inservice proceeded collaboratively, emphasizing the intrinsic rewards of education. Financial support was clearly defined, and consultants were in support, not authority roles. Complex and ambitious needs were responded to through local, school-focused programs. Inservice was best that itself modelled good teaching practises.

The fact that a classroom teacher makes over 200 decisions per hour surely invests them with some authority in determining inservice needs (Jackson, 1968). Inservice needs are better addressed when teachers' problem-solving skills are related to local needs (Burrello and Orbaugh, 1982). The common criticisms that 4,000 elementary teachers and 3,500 secondary teachers held against their inservice experiences were that those experiences were inappropriate to actual class circumstances, too theoretical, and too general (Osborne, 1977, pp. 29-34). Apelman (1978, p. 27) describes stages of teachers' needs: 1) beginnings - where needs for class management, discipline and organization are primary, 2) new ideas and activities - where resources are sought, 3) extension, curriculum development - where the teacher is in a secure position and is looking for interesting depth and diversity. Comparable to Apelman's analysis of teacher's needs is Lambert's (1976, p. 19) description of three kinds of inservice activities that address different teachers needs: 1) switch course, 2) stay and grow courses, 3) broad perception courses.

Teachers' needs and preferences appear to be fundamentally tied to their interests. That is, interests appear to be the growing edge of one's beliefs about what gives life value (Callan, 1983, p. 43). So any group that wishes to tailor its inservice activities to the needs of teachers must not only take a look at areas where remediation may be required, but activity that contributes to a teacher's ability to make continuous growth (Howey and Willie, 1980, pp. 36-37). Only by living with the people involved in inservice and establishing their concrete concerns and interests in the class can needs truly be dynamically assessed rather than powerfully levelled (Rothe, 1980, p. 37).

Special attention has also been given, within the inservice research, to approaches to teacher education in the induction year. Howey (1983), claims that only one-fifth of beginning teachers receive any inservice education. Commonly, inservice education that exists in a teacher's induction year amounts to only a few hours of the year (Arends, 1982). Yet it is lamented that beginning teachers suffer from feelings of failure, frustration and great isolation (Apelman, 1978). Although collaborative learning between teachers in service and student teachers during practise teaching is widely advocated (Bush, 1977), many research needs exist that highlight why the induction year is also crucially important to teacher education. Some of these needs are: 1) to conceptualize and test different relationships, partnerships that may involve legal, political or economic schemes to assist beginning teachers, 2) to research how the beginning teacher is socialized, 3) to know more about the perceptions and expectations of beginning teachers (Howey, 1983).

The impact of the induction year on neophyte teachers is so intense that Fenstermacher (1982) claims that the set of intentions with which they meet their duties becomes acutely altered. Many of the young teachers' ideals are relegated to a "storage set" of intentions, while survival-oriented intentions form the set in use during induction. Zeichner and Tabachnick (1981, pp. 7-10) feel that the reason neophyte teachers change the liberal views of their college days to a narrower, pragmatic vision is that universities fail to offer them conceptual tools to transcend the structural contexts of actual school life. Patterson (1984, p. 43) suggests that such impact on young teachers' thinking and acting is an historically long-term condition.

If teachers indeed have not been endowed during their preservice education with tools to transcend everyday classroom challenges, then it is small wonder that inservice education very often takes place according to a deficit model (Holly and Blackman, pp. 1-2). The central problem here appears to be the gap between teachers' ideas and aspirations and the schooling pressures against operationalizing them. Stenhouse (1975, pp. 2-3) has noted the cross-current of the world of ideals and the world of reality in terms of curriculum development. Certainly the gap between these two worlds is potentially widest at the interface of preservice and inservice teacher education - the induction year. And if continuing teacher education is to replace deficit models of inservice then ways will have to be found to better bridge this gap.

Research also explains that teacher attitude is usually ignored in inservice activities in favour of organizational-structural approaches to problem-solving (Blair, 1982). Nevertheless, a battery of tests have now been developed for measuring a teacher's attitudes (self-reporting inventories, systematic observation, cloze-style questionnaires, semantic scales of adjective descrimination, etc.), but teacher conscience is seldom pointed out as a source of these attitudes. The necessarily voluntary source of continuing teacher education is too easily obscured by partisan interests and provincial arrogance of various organizations such as teachers associations, trustee groups and provincial and state ministries. Many special interest groups have been pushing their own variant of an organizational system for staff development. On the other hand, teachers who individually dabble in professional development with little commitment to connecting their private enlightenment to the service of broad schooling needs are equally in ignorance of their own educative conscience.

Kennedy (1981, pp. 105-119) makes the point that change must come from those who need the change, and offers guidelines toward that end: 1) build on the problematic experience of people and their needs, 2) help focus their need, 3) affirm their own expertise, 4) allow people to learn from one another instead of mediating everything, 5) engage specialists as resources to be contacted, 6) supportive, communal activities followed by dialogue help myths to be analyzed, changes made.

A recent development noted by Sandefur (1978, pp. 9-13) is that as teachers' credentials increase from university studies in Masters and Ph.D programs, their sense of deference to authority decreases while their collegial ties strengthen. Administrative bodies are at the same time beginning to recognize the value of further teacher participation in the development of inservice aims and resources (Tripartite Committee on Inservice Education, 1980, pp. 6-9). Quite in opposition to a dictatorial philosophy such as "Whoever pays the piper calls the tune", the administrative decision not to control the inservice program may be the first step towards ensuring its success (Case, 1981, p. 119). Small groups of peers involved with on-site observations and subsequent problem-solving activity have been regarded as at once non-threatening and highly effective in making inservice work (Mohlman, 1982). Yet observation and analytical skill cannot be accepted as a "given". Methods found to improve teachers inquiry skills have been the honing of teachers' ability to observe class action, refection upon that action, and the keeping of a journal (Schultz and Yinger, 1982).

Lastly, adult development literature has noted the importance of ongoing, voluntary reflection upon experience (Sprinthall and Sprinthall, 1980). Supervision research has also discovered that reflectivity in teachers is vital (Spodek and Nir-Janiv, 1981) as has curriculum development literature (Olson, 1983). In staff development writing receptivity opposes prescription of programs (Woods, 1980). Such receptivity is described as relevant to both personal and professional needs, aimed at diminishing anxiety of failure, and including consistent feedback of respect and trust for the learner. A self-reflective investigative spirit was advocated (Connelly and Albaz, 1980) as an important element of a teacher's deliberative processes during curriculum development. Nemser (1980, p. 146) points out that the meaning of the term "teacher reflection" still requires research.

Although teachers' attitudes of self and the process of teaching have been ignored by teacher education research until very recently (Loree, 1971, p. 113), teachers' personal style is claimed as the most important variable in learning (Association for Supervision and Curriculm Development, 1980). Yet a survey of 800 Boston teachers found 44% had negative attitudes toward their job; and in a large-scale N.E.A. study, 42% of the teachers polled wouldn't even enter the profession again - only 4% indicated enthusiasm for their job (Barth, 1981). Watt (1983) asks if voluntary inservice will be able to withstand the 1980's trend towards the imposition of accountable programming and standardization of teacher competence. In the same paper Watt suggests such pressures may be addressed by greater teacher participation in the evaluation of inservice, the nullification of strong isolationist tendencies among teachers by further teacher collaboration, and increased support of inservice that encourages community ties with teachers.

In review, recent approaches to inservice teacher education include: 1) exploration of means of collaboration, 2) examination of "best practises" of past inservice, 3) the special needs of the induction year, 4) the relationship of teachers' attitudes to inservice activites, 5) recognition of the dynamic between increasingly - educated teachers and their administration personnel, 6) voluntarism, and the constructive potential of teacher's reflective investigations in schools.

Models. Houle (1980) has noted that two broad principles have historically undergirded all inservice teacher education: 1) voluntary continuing education of teachers, 2) improved efficiency of school systems. Holly and Blackman (1983) explain that the voluntary, professional education of teachers as an inservice aim arises from an existential developmental perspective of education; while improved efficiency of systems is an attitude of remediation that is rationalized by positivism and assumptions that each teacher's mind is tabula rasa. In Europe, these two principles have recently become polarized, as staff development interest groups "stand off" against personal development interest groups (Bruce, 1980, p. 141). The fact that most European inservice is highly nationalized and publically funded has tended to support staff development moves to systematic efficiency.

On the other hand, British inservice education and training (I.N.S.E.T.) is widely conceived as a continuum (Bolam, 1982). Thus, Initial, or preservice teacher education is joined by Induction teacher education and Inservice teacher education (triple i). One serious problem inherent in this continuum has recently been identified. That is that the initial teacher education is generally more highly esteemed, academically, while induction and inservice eduation is given little extrinsic reward for its "practical" focus (Gough, 1978, Chapter 7).

Canadian and American inservice research increasingly recognizes the importance of conceiving of inservicing as a form of continuing staff development. The National Inservice Network (1980) cited essential attributes of high quality inservice as: 1) staff development that is responsive to changing needs, accessible and collaboratively arranged, 2) careful evaluation practises, 3) the capacity of the practise to be institutionalized.

Lack of understanding of continuing education by society and teachers alike diminishes the extent of teachers' inservice practices. The immature definition of inservice as a short term set of recipes can be compared to setting specific school goals without respect for the wider scope of educational aims. That is, when society fails to clearly determine the broad aims of its schools, the immediate goals of each subject field become that society's aims, by default (Goodlad, 1964, p. 54). Similarly, when teachers are not acting within the purposeful scope of a professional community of continuing development, they become engrossed in self-culture. Without a strongly supported and carefully informed program of continuing education, teachers become locked out of a nurturing, developmental model of teacher education and instead exist within a fragmented, deficit model: "What am _I_ missing? What credentials do I require?" This deficit model of teacher education impels the teacher into further subject-specialization or personal development only incidentially associated with institution and general professional needs. Paying homage to the evolving, conscientious reflection of which teachers are capable concurrently respects the concept of life-long education, as each teacher redefines their competencies and responsibilities over time (Cropley and Dave, 1978, p. 22).

By striving to develop master teachers through a strong commitment to their life-long education, inservice is steered away from the craft-patch reinforcement of technical skills. This primary recognition of the master teacher should not, however, allow us to forget that much of the inservice work that teachers do is done in order to improve some aspect of the curriculum they offer (Donoughue et al, 1981, p. 15). Certainly, many excellent teachers have at once made valuable contributions both to subject-specific research and to the renewal of their own teaching (Flinn, 1982, pp. 51-52; Miller and Dhand, 1973, p. 52).

A developmental model of continuing teacher education could be given body by: 1) further teacher collaboration, 2) comprehensive inservice centers for teachers in each district, 3) increased sensitivity to induction training, 4) recognition of the fact that adults develop, and are not in stasis, 5) the formulation of career-long development designs (Howsan, 1980, pp. 94-96). Howsam (1980) also conceived that a legislated professional body with educational concerns such as teacher preparation, certification, exams, ethics and program approval should be sharply distinguished from the administrative body whose schooling concerns are oriented to the physical plant operations. Thus he links continuing inservice education with further refinement and respect for teaching as a profession akin to medicine, law and theology. From this perspective, continuing education is nurtured through many facets of teachers' professional responsibility.

Should a broadened conception of professional responsibility become widespread among both teachers and institutions, teacher-educators might be caused to re-think current disparate definitions of the terms "inservice" and "continuing education". The Bicentennial Commission on Education made by the A.A.C.T.E. (1976) defines inservice as a coping with local students, and continuing education as more general education dealing with meta-theories through graduate studies (Burdin, 1978, p. 31). Perhaps this descrimination is more closely tied to teachers' incomplete roles in certification, program development, etc., rather than a truly constructive long-term antidote to teachers' inservice needs. Joyce and Clift (1984) propose that a truly continuing education demands a change in the culture of teacher education itself. Therefore they recommend research aimed at making changes in the field such as: 1) the removal of teachers' permanent certificate, replaced by a life-long learning organized by a professional board of teachers. 2) restricting teacher accreditation to knowledge producing institutions engaged in inquiry, linked with experimental schools. 3) The institution of procedures of rational assessment of graduates' competence before they enter educational graduate schools.

The call to improve teacher education may in fact be a call to improve resources, support longer and better programs, and attract better students throughout the continuum of service (Greenburg, 1983, pp 3-4). Previous programs of teacher education have been recently analyzed to consist of four main types: 1) behaviouristic, aimed toward efficiency in the performance of skills, 2). traditional-craft, that is an apprenticeship of received competence, 3) personalistic, pointing to self-development, 4) inquiry, the fostering of reflexive research, and critical practise (Zeichner, 1983, pp. 3-9).

Regarding inservice teacher education at the local level, many different objectives, needs and purposes may initiate the inservice: 1) personal development 2) career programs, to change one's role or responsibilities, 3) systems-related, in response to a societal mandate for change, 4) general professional development, to stay currently professional, 5) job-specfic problems or need 6) transitional activities of continuing education (Howey, 1976, pp. 23-24).

Organizational approaches to inservice have been formulated according to different models of research and development. Whitehead (1980) describes these various approaches from Schon's perspective: 1) a centre-periphery model, wherein pre-determined materials are diffused from central administration, 2) proliferation of secondary centres, wherein regional staff receive and translate central office mandates, 3) periphery-centre, wherein a web of relations is made by personnel at various levels of an organization. Whitehead also explains different methods of organizational change in Havelock's terms: 1) research, development and diffusion, in a top-down, highly centralized fashion, 2) social interaction, 3) problem - solving (Whitehead, 1980, Chapter 1; Chapman, 1983).

While acknowledging the complexity of concerns impacting on various inservices and the variety of approaches by which inservice may proceed, analysis of large scale inservices reported by Joyce and Showers, RAND Corporation, and I.D.E.A., has revealed five ingredients in successful inservice activity: 1) the individual school or class should be the focus of action, 2) activities should be prescribed by teachers and administrators concerned, 3) teachers and administrators are reservoirs to be tapped, 4) time release of such staff members is required to thus identify and solve problems, 5) outside agencies need to assist modestly in skill development (Smyth, 1982, pp. 331-342).

The importance of working with teachers in classrooms has currently become a recurring theme in models of inservice. For example, Joyce and Shower's large scale research (in Woods, 1980) found that valuable methods of participating in inservice consisted of: 1) an enactment of teaching skills through demonstration, 2) practice by peers within simulated actual conditions, 3) structured small group feed-back by colleagues through video and discussion, 4) mutual planning toward actual applications. Also, coaching teachers on site to support previous professional development, self-evaluation, periodic meetings among involved teachers, communications newsletters, and formative evaluations followed by in-class team practise have been found to contribute to communication throughout inservice (Osborne, 1977, p. 104-105; Rhodes and Young, 1981, p. 629; Neill, 1981, pp. 46-49; Keast, 1982, pp. 22-26). Establishing educative communities through an "ecological network" of students, teachers, parents and administrators is proferred as a way of moving beyond rigid top-down organizational procedures toward an expanded, sensitive conception of school renewal (Heckman, 1983, pp. 26-32). Increasing demands to recognize ever-present political and cultural aspects of making change have encouraged this move beyond simplistic R.D. and D. (House, 1979, p. 138). Workshop-oriented programs featuring cooperative efforts among local personnel from various agencies have proven worthy (Fennel et al, 1980, p. 2).

The integration of curriculum development efforts with inservice teacher education is another area that is rich in conceptual frameworks (Burke, 1973; Edelfelt and Smith, 1978, Chapter 9; McCabe, 1980). Fullan (1980) states that curriculum implementation is becoming the pre-occupation of inservice in Canada (p.9). The process of curriculum naturally dove-tails into inservice teacher education as teachers begin making rather than taking curriculum. That is, increasingly, teachers are becoming involved in planning, implementing and evaluation of curriculum, enabling their educative self-renewal through reflection on the meaning of the experience (Gough, 1977, p. 218; Connelly and Ben Peretz, 1980, p. 100). Both curriculum development activities and inservice teacher education are multi-dimensional, alinear, dyanmic and continuous, and meet in the pivotal role of the teacher (Edelfelt and Smith, 1978, Chapter 9; Russell, 1975, pp. 27-31). Vital steps that teachers may make during the inservice curriculum development process have been described as 1) analyzing current practise, 2) applying theory critically to one's practice, 3) developing curriculum, 4) working with a team of teachers to improve the curriculum as practiced (Ashton et al, 1982, pp. 18-21).

If as Fullan explains (1978), structural reform primarily depends on change within individuals, perhaps some forms of teacher education are more conducive to institutional transformation than others. With reference to Zeichner's four categories of present-day teacher education programs (Zeichner, 1983), both apprenticeship and reflective inquiry in practise would then appear to be more significant than a behaviouristic skill improvement focus or singular self-development efforts. Byrd (1977), having studied 5,000 teachers' views on the need for inservice education, also concluded that district organization of inservice should be based on teachers' own concepts of purpose to enable clear collaboration with district personnel.

Regarding the "matching" of individual teachers' purposes with those of the district, Miller and Ellsworth (1983), in looking at changing patterns of growth in 43 teachers over two years, discovered three areas of teacher purpose: 1) aims to increase knowledge, 2) aims to change one's attitude, 3) aims to alter one's class practise. All three purposes were seen as distinct but often over-lapping. Blair's 1982 research on models of inservice teacher education found four major factors were at the root of successful inservice amongst the small population he studied: 1) the degree to which teachers believed in themselves, 2) the teachers' ability to succeed with students, 3) continuity of changing evaluation in the inservice activity, 4) congruence of inservice goals and purposes with teachers' beliefs.

Robert Bush's 1977 look at general teacher education practises holds implications as to the importance of each teacher's active deliberation in making educational changes. Among other things, he found that frequent and varied practise, involving critical feedback is essential to teacher education. School and community relations must be considered in the balance if both arenas are to improve. A broad, general education helps teachers make wise decisions. If individual differences are respected among teachers, educational results are strengthened. These findings sketch possible parameters of teachers' commitment in terms of persevering reflection and communication, awareness of school and community concerns, a broad foundation of knowledge to draw upon, and request for unique qualities in those around us.

In studying change processes in schools, Leithwood (1981) and Fullan (1983, p. 216) have further recognized that teachers' beliefs and assumptions underly any given approach to change. Holly and Blackman add that specific to inservice teacher education five vehicles support professional change: 1) time - for reflection, absorption, application and play with new ideas and structures; both quality and scheduling of time are important, 2) organization of inservice, so that it is flexible, responsive, and entails follow-up, 3) attitude, the teachers' solid commitment, 4) climate, an arena of trust and respect in which exploration and sharing can occur, 5) content, which is personally relevant to the teachers. Joyce (1981) also reminds us that it is easier to bring about educational changes than it is to sustain them because the "ownership" of the change if critical. That is, each teacher's attitude and position of respect are vital.

Another important conceptual focus in the inservice research literature involves the re-definition of the administrative role. Sergiovanni (1984) laments the present administrative emphasis on behavioral objectives and measured effectiveness that in most areas has replaced consideration of principles, philosophy and long-term purposes with a lop-sided instrumental view. Yet, as Cawelti (1982) states, leadership implies providing a vision and a sense of direction. He advises that to fulfill the leadership role, administrators optimally need comprehensive education beyond the traditional topics of law, policy-analysis and supervision. In addition, Cawelti advises that administrators should be educated toward: 1) leadership in curriculum development, evaluation, and staff development, 2) behavioural styles of leadership, 3) management skill in planning, organizational directing, and controlling of resources.

Possibly, more important than establishing a normative set of leadership criteria, is recognition of the concept of "situational leadership". That is, a variety of leadership styles and commitments can be regarded as acceptable, providing they are fitted to a particular staff and district. For example, successful principals are those who have been characterized as having diagnosed their situation and adapted their style and behaviour accordingly (Wyant et al; 1980).

In a study made by Sabar (1983) professional development coordinators exhibited very high commitment to their role as group leader and curriculum specialist. Whether the coordinators were principals, university leaders, or local administrators, they commonly declined their roles as subject-matter specialists or as master-teacher. Yet Drummond and Lawrence (1978) have warned that inservice activities are complex activities that demand both professional pedagogic insight and administrative acumen. Inservice activities would be of greater benefit to class practitioners and the whole school organization should administrators expand their role of supervision to that of educational leadership (Harris etal, 1969; Emrick, 1980, p. 443).

Positive teacher regard for their students has yielded the highest correlation with pupil achievement (Aspy-Roebuck, 1972, p. 365; Brophy, 1983). One wonders if the same attitude on the part of administrators might not benefit teachers in their role as students during the inservice act. Administators' high regard for teachers during inservice might be demonstrated by their 1) acknowledging the unique levels of development within each staff member (Sprinthall and Sprinthall, 1980; Bents and Howey, 1981), 2) broadening their own horizons as coordinators to embrace subject specialities and master-teacher roles, 3) carefully adapting themselves to each school locale.

Regarding leadership in action, the literature is very embryonic. Some light has been shed on the principals' role in inservice activities. The principal has been described as "key" if he or she is capable of representing the site-specific needs, limitations and potential of district teachers to their administrative officers or external funding agency (Reinhard et al, 1980; Drummond and Lawrence, 1978).

Some research has noted the quality of inservice education that has been organized specifically for principals. In Sharp's study (1983) of 500 principals in 15 states, 95% of the participants voluntarily returned for the second year of inservice. These inservices were characterized by their mutual encouragement and collegiality among principals, many of whom had become habituated to isolation in their jobs. The principals were encouraged to adopt continuous improvement as a way of life. In addition, they were required to design an actual school improvement project upon which they received feedback, as they also engaged in self-evaluation.

Daresh and La Plant's research (1982), also focussed on collegial support groups of principals. The principals met once a month over two years and found that they learned best when directly connected to school processes and were responsible for their own learning program. The development of an action plan was also fundamental to the princpals' inservice studied by Donaldson (1982). A principal's academy was formed with the cooperation of the school district, government, and university. The accredited, July meetings helped the principals restructure their time for more class visits and teacher conferences, as well as formulate their personal philosophy and goals which underly their developing action plan.

A short-sighted management response to current educational pressures such as accountability laws, competency tests, rapidly expanding curricula, declining enrolments, restrictive financing and collective bargaining appears to hobble leadership (Cawelti, 1982). As the number of schools has greatly expanded, and the public's desire to share in school governance increased, Duviensart (1977) claims that two major administrative changes have come about: 1) a functional administrative structure has been widely adopted, with divisions for statistics, planning, curriculum, personnel, physical plant and equipment, and finance, 2) the central role of administrator has shifted to a decentralization of numerous special authorities. Duviensart goes on to suggest that a serious but unrecognized inservice need is to prepare administrators themselves for both their specialist and their team role.

Another reason for poor leadership may exist in the lack of competency developed by many administrators in making evaluations at the class-level (Huddle, 1982). Evaluation time may be gobbled by growing management tasks. Relatively unconnected to their staff's needs in the absence of incisive evaluation, the administrator may myopically set a programmed inservice recipe. The alternative could be the provision of educative inservice opportunities involving staff members in mutual reflection, choosing, sifting of evidence and appraisal of various circumstances (Fenstermacher, 1980, p. 40).

Lastly, major conceptual models have addressed needs-assessment during inservice. The American Association of Teacher Educators has drawn up a model of inservice needs-assessment composed of four steps: 1) deriving needs statements, 2) the development of a master list of needs, 3) prioritizing this list of needs, 4) preparing an inservice plan (A.A.C.T.E., 1979, p. 2). Following the delineation of this model, its authors stated that more vital than the steps above was the perennial time-frame associated with them - an annual phase of assessment that is evaluated tri-annually. In surveying nine national education associations, Davis (1980) discovered that they derived needs statements through the analysis of existing records, with the use of surveys, by collecting others' opinions, or through observation and intervention.

Harrison (1979) has also described the teacher's perceived need for change as the source of motivation that is vital to realizing educational change. He describes the teacher's concern as augmented by external support, administrative leadership and non-threatening evaluation. Donoughue (1981) correspondingly identifies the clarification of needs as pre-requisite to implementing a program. And she emphasizes that formative evalution makes the relationship between needs and program implementation dynamic.

In a nationwide survey of parents, teachers, administration and teacher educators, Bents and Howey (1981) found that although needs-assessments were increasingly employed prior to inservice activities, they have usually taken the form of very general inventories that focus on curriculum change, as was also the focus in the three studies above. The dominance of curriculum programming over teacher education may have been pronounced in a recent paper title: Inservice Education: Cornerstone of Curriculum Development or Stumbling Block? (Nash and Ireland, 1979). Therein, needs-assessment is regarded as a psychological component composed of "probes" made by academics to discover classroom teachers' preferred sensory modality, timing, and style.

A scholar who has specialized in needs-assessment, Roger Kaufman (1983, p. 53) characterizes needs-assessment as "the provision of a valid rationale for relating means to validated ends". Kaufman notes the ambiguity of "needs", in that they can be taken as means or as ends. He pin-points a need as a gap in results, and has further described needs-assessment as a tool to be used to functionally separate means and ends. Thus, Kaufman and others regard needs-assessment as the first critical step in identifying and resolving problems (Kaufman and English, 1979, p. vii and p. 5; Rubin and Hansen, 1980, Chapter 7). Although the ambiguity of needs as either means or ends is noted, and needs-assessment is further identified as a problem solving tool, Kaufman further defines education itself as a means (1979, p. 7). Without education as an end, needs do not necessarily arise from or converge upon educative ends, but take on the condition of whatever means is prescribed. Aoki (1974, p. 28) has criticized this linear model of thinking as having undesirable underlying assumptions: that means may be more important than ends, that the shortest route is the best, that ends are realized only developmentally. Aoki offers a mutualistic model of interactive means and ends, in place of the efficiency model of linear means-ends. Kaufman's conception of needs-assessment falls short in that it fails to descriminate between long-term aims and short term objectives. On the other hand, both Kaufman and English reject the singular polling of broad needs that has so often led to little or no change by determining sex, age, income, religious and political affiliations, years in the school system, family and property status. Kaufman also attacks the production of "wish lists", that are surveys of personal desires that make no attempt to draw a comparative, socially aware picture of needs (Kaufman, 1983, p. 61).

Peter Rothe (1980, pp. 36-38) explains how needs-assessments may be made from five different perspectives: 1) discrepancy perspective where needs are seen to be the difference between desired performance and observed performance. A norm is kept in mind to differentiate what is with what is possible to achieve, 2) consensus perspective, that is self-defined according to the particular needs of a reference group, 3) diagnostic perspective, which aims to provide absent factors, and claims that what is needed is detrimental when absent, 4) analytic perspective, which finds needs in the direction in which improvements can be predicted to occur from one's present knowledge, 5) ethnographic perspective, which respects that needs are unique in space and time, and is attuned to social, cultural and normative patterns in everyday living. One's own response to others' responses is gauged and an individual's explanation of needs is respected.

No doubt many assessments of teachers' needs for inservice education have been inadequate (A.A.C.T.E., 1979; Baden, 1979, p. 2; Houston and Pankratz, 1980; Edelfelt, 1982). A simplistic structural model of needs-assessment that itself depends on large-scale sampling procedures, problem indexing instruments, taxonomies of needs and set phasing of priorities, can only rudely approximate actual educational needs. Indeed, needs cannot be addressed piece-meal, but ought to be simultaneously related to teachers' strengths and interests (Taylor, 1978, p. 162; Burrello and Orbaugh, 1982; Edelfelt, 1982). While it is true that a teacher's unrecognized needs and unfulfilled interests subsequently blind them to many qualities in their students (Holly and Blackman, 1983, p. 3) teachers have been found to often recognize their own weaknesses and effectively address them in available inservice (Theis, 1981, p. 7; Iwanicki and McEachern, 1984). Teachers are relegated to an irrelevant source group when pressure for staff competency faces off against personal professional development (Bolam, 1982, p. 42; Ingersoll et al, 1975) or when experts external to schools are given "ownership:" to make curriculum changes (A.A.C.T.E., 1979).

To reiterate, in reviewing models of inservice teacher education, major conceptual frameworks involved: 1) continuing education, 2) organizational structure, 3) methods of participation, 4) curriculum and staff development, 5) personal growth, 6) re-definition of the administrative role, 7) needs-assessment practises.

Reflections Upon the Review of the Literature

It would be presumptious to make bold statements as to which research undertaking are valuable and which are less so, particularly in light of the necessarily different needs of varying locales. Nevertheless, one might compare general research trends as outlined above in Models and Approaches to Inservice, with the reasons inservices have not succeeded, to provide some critical guidelines.

1. **Oversimplification of the process** could be alleviated by further research into the concept of inservice as continuing education. The literature acknowledges that the definition of continuing education is as yet immature, although it is understood to be undergirded by voluntary participation - not solely the deficit programming of systems' efficiency. Perhaps further research into continuing inservice education would help re-channel some of the esteem preservice practises presently enjoy. Such research may help change the schooling culture in terms of altered certification practises, experimental school, and broadened terms of evaluation.

   In addition, oversimplication of inservice practises might be offset by further research into needs assessment. Certainly, much time and energy is presently being wasted because of superficial fact-finding polls that focus on what is generally needed rather than how and why improvements can be made.

2. **Existing social ambiguities of the school milieu** could possibly be better understood through further research into teacher collaboration, with particular attention to the induction year. High levels of frustration, alienation and feelings of failure can be alleviated in part by school-focused collaboration among teachers. Further study could clarify exactly why certain school pressures prevent teachers from operationalizing their education ideals.

   Further, a number of schools' social ambiguities that impede inservice could potentially be circumscribed if the administrative role was re-defined. Initial steps toward such redefinition have been taken as "situational leadership" is acknowledged, and the importance of leadership and the master-teacher role has been underscored. Much research is needed to help clarify the administrator's dual role of specialist and team leader, while collegial support groups for principals may provide a new vehicle for understanding complex school problems.

3. **The normative influence of universities** may perhaps best be examined with the large-scale focus of research upon organizational structures. Then, models such as Schon's and Havelock's on organizational change, and multi-purpose large-scale research projects such as RAND and I.D.E.A. may better describe inter-institutional relationships, checks and balances.
4. **Weak evaluation practises** may be upgraded and expanded in scope by inservice research that seeks more than a deficit analysis of teachers' weaknesses by encouraging the study of their strengths. Considerations of personal growth according to time variables, organizational specifics, attitudes, school climate, as well as subject content would give a more complete evaluative picture.
5. **Galvanizing teachers' personal commitment** is a subtle and difficult undertaking as it concerns internal motivation. However, some improvement in this area might be expected from research that accentuates the importance of the process, acknowledges personal attitudes and beliefs, and

supports teachers' reflection about inservice. Organizational theory and staff development literature have already acknowledged the necessity of change originating from the reflections of those who need it. Yet more research is required to discover how to better define the meaning of reflection in the inservice arena.

The review of the literature has also helped the author frame his own research on inservice teacher education. As Edelfelt (1981) has stated, it is vital that teachers' personal goals as well as the district's organizational goals become integrated, not alienated through inservice. Therefore, in striving to understand how inservice is made worthwhile, the interviews have been carried out particularly to extend knowledge about the beliefs and attitudes of inservice participants.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH VALIDATION

In this Chapter, a thumbnail sketch of the interview participants' professional experiences will first be provided as a background for the examples of research dialogue that follow. A description of both first and second order validation procedures will then be given that expands upon the information already presented in Chapter One. Lastly, examples of interview dialogue from both procedures will be transcribed.

PROFESSIONAL SKETCHES OF THE INTERVIEWEES

Each of the educators has been chosen to be interviewed because of the depth of their commitment to education and the broad range of their professional experience. Their high academic achievement, including Ph.D work, their administrative or consulting background, and their love of teaching were all considered to be noteworthy by the author during his graduate studies in the Secondary Education Department of the University of Alberta. The five interviewees have each provided the following sketch of their professional experience. For the sake of confidentiality, each interviewee will be represented by an initial only.

'J'. 'J' attended Stratford Teachers College and then obtained her B.A. from the University of Western Ontario. 'J' became the Supervisor of Physical Education and Health in the Ontario Ministry of Education, Certification Department. Subsequently she served as Assistant Supervisor of Physical Education, North York Board of Education, for seven years as well as inspector-consultant of Physical Education in the Ontario Ministry of Education, for nine years. During these years 'J' also received a Diploma (supplementary) from Chelsea College of Physical Education in the U.K. and a Diplomal Special Course in Laban Movement Studies. Most recently, 'J' has held the University positions of Associate Professor, Faculty of Physical Education and Recreation, as well as Associate Professor, Faculty of Education.

'A'. 'A' has had ten years of teaching experience, one in elementary, one in junior high and eight years in senior high. She has worked as a program coordinator for the French programs of thirteen school boards for inservicing, program development and resources. Also, she taught special session University courses to teachers in small towns, and has given many inservice sessions.

'T'. 'T' taught junior high for three years and senior high for three years. He taught a number of subjects as well as helping to develop and pilot some new social studies courses. 'T' worked at the central office of an Atlantic Province School Board as Supervisor of instruction for five years. He was responsible for the evaluation, development and implementation of new programs for the school district. 'T' also participated in provincial curriculum work in social studies. He was a member of the provincial committee for five years; two years as chairman, and for two years was member of a provincial task force developing the foundations for a new K-12 provincial curriculum.

'G'. 'G' has taught social studies and drama at the high school level. A teacher for seven years, 'G' has served on Board curriculum committees and has been active in the Alberta Teachers' Association, including his work as Treasurer of his local and negotiating Chairman of the local bargaining unit. A graduate of the University of Lethbridge (B.Ed. with great distinction, and the University of Alberta (M.Ed), 'G' is a frequent speaker and presenter at conventions and Social Studies conferences in Canada and the United States.

'F'. 'F''s educational background has been: the University of Alberta, B.Mus., Northeast Missouri State University, M.A. in Music Education. 'F' has studied the Suzuki Method with John Kendall and Thomas Rolston and the Orff-Kodaly Method with Mary Helen Richards. He has played in the Edmonton Symphony Orchestra as Second Violin. 'F' has been employed by the Edmonton Public School Board as a classroom teacher of Music, Language Arts, Social Studies, Canadian Law, Geography and Western Canadian History, for fourteen years. He holds membership in the International Electronic Music Association, Informationskreis Musik+Eletronki, and the Alberta Society for Computers in Education. He has written original music and continues to contribute to research in the music field. 'F' is particularly interested in electronic and computer applications in music.

FIRST ORDER VALIDATION OF THE INTERVIEWS.

It has been noted in the "Methodological Procedures" section of this thesis that the interviews proceeded in six distinct steps. One of the most challenging steps was cited as number three. That is, written transcripts of every interview were made, then interpreted and discussed throughout the four interviews. As each taped interview was transcribed in writing, the interviewer developed questions and observations about the underlying meaning in the text of that dialogue. This interpretive re-examination of each text was then brought forth into the next interview in the form of questions that were explored with the interviewee.

The first order validation can be seen as a three-step process of probing the underlying meaning of each interview by: 1) reflecting upon the meaning of the interview as it is transcribed by the researcher 2) formulating questions that aim to uncloud underlying ambiguity in the interviews 3) entering into new dialogue with each interviewee aimed at verifying the meaning that was invested in past and present interviews. This process was essential to the research endeavour because issues and ideas could thus be developed from one interview to another and a correspondence of ideas and feelings was thus sustained between the author and each interviewee.

Examples of first order validation procedures now follow that will be comprised of questions the author formulated to reach the substance of the interviews, as well as the interviewees' clarifying responses to my interpretations. The examples will be drawn from four consecutive interviews with 'A'. It is posited that such a longtitudinal perspective will disclose the continuing, interpretive probing that existed throughout the interviews. Direct quotes of this dialogue process follow.

Examples of First Order Validation Questions and Responses

Interview #1. R. "What have been the inservice experiences that stand out in your life?

A. At first it's really difficult to say, because I always (softly) hated inservices. I'm trying to think of the type of inservices that we had...the teachers conventions, I found absolutely useless. Even the speeches, most of the time were uninspiring. They really didn't make a difference.

R. Did you ever experience a long-term in-service, as opposed to a professional development day?

A. Like going back to University?

R. Possibly related to University, but definitely while you were a teacher, while you were in-service, being a teacher, or directly in class.

A. When I was a teacher, most of my inservice was...the type of thing that I enjoyed, that is the type of enrichment that I sought out mostly dealt with the subject matter. That is with the French language and French literature, or English language and English literature, or the arts...something that was always peripheral to my teaching as such. And the inservices that dealt with teacher education I avoided or wasn't very interested in because most of them were dealing with new techniques or new materials. And to me that seemed so irrelevant.

R. What would you rather have seen, may I ask?

A. Well, developmental things, things that could have allowed me to understand myself, as a person, (pause) because I really think that is where teaching is at - who we are as a person.

R. As a person in the class, or...

A. No, as a person in general. The type of thing to help you understand who you are, why you are a certain way, why you're not a certain way, how you are perceived by others, how you perceive yourself, how you perceive others. These types of general developments. And not personality developments; not in the sense of becoming a more congenial person.

R. In what respect then?

A. In respect of understanding (pause) who we are, who others are. But starting with who we are, because that's who we portray in the classroom. And that's why I was going to literature most of the time and to the arts. I think back over ten years of teaching: whenever we had a break, whenever we had these "prep-times" most of what I would do, I would prepare my lessons (always well prepared) but then I would spend the time with literature - reading, in the sense of work, not in the sense of light-reading. In the sense of work; of making notes, making a detailed plan of what this writer is saying, this type of thing.

R. In a sense, this was your own inservice. You were taking it upon yourself to see something in literature that would help you to see yourself. But did you find that you ever related this directly to the students, what you were reading?

A. Oh yes! Yes.

R. So it's a full circle, but how?

A. Very often, and I've often had this with the students. On certain days the students will want to talk. So we would discuss things. Things that had to do with the classroom politics or with the school, general things. Inevitably things came up that didn't seem related, but somehow always became tied. The things that don't seem related to the situation; somehow that personal interest always came in.

R. Synchronicity?

A. In terms of getting the students to wonder about things, a certain poet or a painter. I would talk to them quite freely about these things. And it sort of made not only a "joining together" but a sense that there was so much more to this than just the teaching of French or the teaching of English or typing. The inservice, the type of thing I enjoyed we never taught it...tied to the curriculum.

R. When I hear the word "never" I wonder if you mean it was of secondary consequence?

A. Yes, because we always have to attend those things. (pause) The only one that stands out in my mind is a conference that I went to in Montreal. At that time I wasn't teaching anymore, I was a coordinator of programmes, so I was going there for someone else, to learn how to use a certain method for someone else. In a way, at that time it was like an intellectual exercise, but it was also an exercise of "contestation". Because at that time being out of the classroom, being at the level of coordinator I was ready to say, quite freely - "I think that stinks", and create an uproar - and that's what I did.

R. What kind of inservice was this?

A. It was "La Methode Dynamique" - that's a Reading series, just like Dick and Jane, Nelson Series. And it was given by the author of the method. I found the method poor. Not only in the sense of learning to read, but also in what the children learned. Very minimal. A group of us ended up thinking in the same way, and we challenged the author.

R. "Challenge" is an interesting word. Your inservice became more meaningful because you were able to challenge.

A. Yup.

R. You were in a position to challenge what you heard.

A. Exactly. (pause) Funny, things are beginning to open up, clear up. When I was a teacher I was almost at the mercy of the inservicers. So I would attend and yet withdraw. I would attend because I had to attend and I would take things out of there, but the heart wasn't there. But, when I came to a position to be able to say "I don't agree with this", that's when the inservice became interesting.

R. Were you able, as a coordinator, to take back and share parts of this experience with your own district? Was there an overflow from this inservice experience that was so memorable? Did it stop there, or did it go on from there?

A. It did and it didn't. It did in terms of the friends that I made there. We kept on, even to the point of writing a paper to the author and saying "This is what we think of it". So there was this link that had been made. In terms of coming back and telling the other teachers "This method stinks etc., etc." of course I didn't, because I would have been losing my job. And yet it's still going on, for today, as we set up our private school the same question comes up - "What reading method are we going to use?" (pause)

R. As a teacher then, as I understand what you've said, there was very little that you could say was actually a constructive inservice. Was there, perhaps, any person, even, who was a light on the way during inservice, or were the limitations of the grouping so severe that that wasn't possible? Were there other limitations? I've asked you the why, but I wonder about the why not?

A. I'm not thinking in terms of useful or not useful so much as wanting to be instructed.

R. What do you mean by "wanting to be instructed?" This might be a key phrase...

A. Okay, when you come to an inservice most often you are insisted, that is "x" number of days have been set up, and although your questions are being asked, very seldom do they turn out the way you asked for them. So you end up being forced. And most of the time inservices are social situations rather than situations where you are really learning about something. The other part to this is that when you go to an inservice, most of the time you are dealing with methodologies and materials - recipes - learning to do things one way or another way. I think that was what was turning me off. That was what I didn't want to be instructed in. I wanted ideas. And those ideas I could get from books or colleagues, not particularly from inservice. And what I wanted to be instructed in, that is what I wanted to know more, where my heart was in terms of learning was not in the recipes but in the general development of the individual - my own as well as my students.

R. Which you shared with them.

A. Yes. So that this more general was what I was interested in. My interests were much better fulfilled by taking University courses in literature, than by inservice. (pause)

R. If I was to refer to inservice not so much as a professional development day., or a series of professional development days but rather as a request by a particular school district for some of their teachers to help build a new curriculum, or to alter their curriculum, over a long term - have you ever been involved with that sort of activity?

A. Yes. It was quite different and much more interesting (than short-term pro-d). I've been involved with it at the level of a teacher-participant, and as a coordinator who directs.

R. In your mind is the long-term inservice categorized more as curriculum development?

A. Yes, I think so. In curriculum development there's more of a sense of participation than inservice, because in curriculum development you know (emphasized) you're going to go back and teach for it. In inservice you're being given ideas...the curriculum development taught me a whole new way of approaching teaching, that was through the objectives, the method of objectives. That to me was unknown, although I had been doing it, unconsciously. It was unknown - a systematic approach to objectives.

R. Was this a long term curriculum development?

A. Three years.

R. And it was specifically coordinated to objectives in school practise?

A. (nods yes)

R. And you were not only a teacher during this but a school administrator?

A. I shifted during the change.

R. Are the two perspectives comparable?

A. Yes, very much. Because as a teacher I participated and I found that I could participate very well, in the sense that what one teaches and wants to teach can be put into a curriculum. Put in writing, almost engraved - that's part of the participative process. As a coordinator the same thing happened and there was also a real joy in having felt what it was like to give one's objectives, one's curriculum material as a teacher. Now I was in charge yet had to accept the others.

R. I'm not sure I understand.

A. Well, the role shifted and it didn't. It shifted in the sense of participating, giving ideas as a true participant and then (drawn out) as I became a coordinator, it was coordinating but it was accepting the participation of others. Truly in the sense of accepting (emphasis) and sitting down five or six people and saying "Now what are we going to do for grade three - let's do this, this and this".

R. It was a full-scale curriculum alteration?

A. Oh yes, the whole curriculum: with objectives, grades, activities, references.

R. How did you choose teachers to participate?

A. We just made sure groups were small enough so that everyone could be there...teachers alternated.

R. Where did you meet?

A. In the schools, on the teachers' grounds.

R. What times?

A. During the day.

R. How did the teachers get the time off?

A. That was built in.

R. Principals' help or substitutes?

A. Both. We can talk more about it, but I have to go to my call-back session.

Interview #2. R. We had decided it would be alright to have another meeting to talk about curriculum development. I was going to ask, what is it that you found challenging in curriculum development?

A. The most challenging was that there was the sense of working together and the fact that the things we were doing together would be implemented because of what we had done together. That was the biggest challenge.

R. When you say "done together", in what sense was it "done together?"

A. Well, the teachers and I would sit down for a full day and say "This is what we'll be teaching at this level and these are the ideas that I have, on how to teach it. And we could compile all of those, and review it again - and that became the curriculum.

R. Were there any forms of disagreement, in the curriculum development?

A. Well, of course there were disagreements but not harsh disagreement, if that's what you mean.

R. No, I don't mean that. Were there points at which disagreement might have hampered development?

A. Well, I guess the biggest thing was personality conflicts between the people that were being there, and, I think those that materialized were kept to a minimum, they weren't major.

R. These curriculum development experiences you had, did they last over a period of months, weeks, days?

A. Oh yes, for a whole year.

R. With the same people involved?

A. Yes.

R. What ways of linking were there that you discovered in the course of curriculum development, between teachers and teachers?

A. The first way was to get the link with the coordinator or the person in charge. The first thing was to establish an intimate relationship with each one of these teachers. And once that was established it was possible to bring them together.

R. How did you do that, did you go to them in their class?

A. Oh yes, spent a good four months visiting everyone of them in their classrooms, outside of their classrooms, giving suggestions, giving books that they may use.

R. I just heard about links between yourself and the teachers. Were there other ways?

A. The links with the administration were much, much more difficult to establish because the administrators most of the time disregarded French. Most of the time French was seen as an unimportant subject, and the teacher of French was an outcast in the school. I don't know if that came from the personality of the teacher, but most of the time there were difficulties between the teachers and the administration. My role there was to establish the importance of the subject matter and the work of the teacher.

R. In the whole year in which you worked with these teachers, did you notice any ways in which they were linking with each other?

A. Oh yes.

R. Would there be any concrete examples that you could share about that?

A. Well, many, many people were saying that what they want is just time to talk to each other. They just wanted to share, it was very positive.

R. Did you find ways of enabling them to have time?

A. Uh huh! Yes, because it was built into the project, that you did have time for the teachers to come in. So that the inservices gave time for them to discuss together.

R. Could you tell me a little more about the amount of time that was alloted to them?

A. I think it was the value of two school days, over and above the regular professional development. They had substitutes coming in.

R. Did you have to fight for those two days?

A. Oh yes. It was difficult not because they didn't have a right to it; it (the argument) was "preferential treatment"...the other teachers didn't get the time out, so why should these teachers get the time? But, the most important argument for it was that these teachers had no curriculum established while the others did.

R. We talked about the ways teachers were able to live with each other. Were there certain things they did that weren't obvious, that might take people weeks to catch on to?

A. It's a difficult question, yet I know I can answer "Yes" there was something special that brought them together, because the evidence was that they wanted to meet and they communicated that enthusiastically. But what brought them to that...that's difficult. It had something to do with them getting to know each other better; perhaps something to do with their coming out of the classroom, simple as that.

R. How did you manage to steer away from frivolity and sociality dominating the meetings?

A. Maybe that's part of making links and letting relationships develop. Both things have to happen. You have to allow people, up to a certain point to socialize. And when it happens, the biggest thing is to have a written agenda and to be organized.

R. That's clear, there's a third object there in the agenda upon which all of our attention can be focused. Now, can you remember back, as a teacher, yourself, how were you able to accept the curriculum change process?

A. How?

R. How did it appear to you?

A. Curriculum change was always relative. Relatively important, but what the problem was, in the area in which I was teaching was that there was no coordination between the junior high and the senior high, nor the elementary for that matter. So that what I felt disturbed about was that - the lack of coordination. Curriculum change itself was only of relative importance until the coordination could be made.

R. I'm not sure what you mean by relative importance? Did you mean that to each individual teacher, it may have meant more or less, is that what you mean?

A. It may have meant something, but it didn't mean anything unless it was brought into a whole, into the totality of educational services. So of course a teacher can change a textbook or the program because the minister says so, but that doesn't do anything. I don't think most teachers realize that because they've been going for years without coordination.

R. I wonder how one could make coordination among teachers a rule that isn't a rule?

A. It's part of an attitude that we must have that what we do is good and must be continued...

R. I remember last week you mentioned something about the "heart" was important, the "wanting to be instructed" was vital to inservice. I had a corresponding thought about sacrifice. Doesn't inservice demand, (because we're not just having this inservice or curriculum development just for our own edification, upliftment) we're also learning new things to present to the students. So there's an element of sacrifice - what I'm trying to get at is how do you see this balance betwen wanting to be instructed, a heartfelt interest, and the sacrifice that a teacher is naturally asked to make as a teacher.

A. (softly) Good question. Maybe my comments came more from a certain view of inservice, not from a certain view of teaching. And the sacrifice is always there in teaching.

R. I believe it always should be there.

A. But in inservice, that's time for us to develop - that was the difference.

R. Yes, then we become students again. So its up to the administration, or the instigator of the inservice to then take on the role of the teacher.

A. Exactly.

R. Very interesting, I didn't know that, thank you.

A. So it was in that context that wanting to be instructed was important...

R. Last week you described how exciting an inservice had been that dealt with the method of teaching with objectives. But how was that any different than an inservice that simply described materials and methods?

A. Because that was new then it was interesting. It was a whole new way of working, that I hadn't worked with before. In the end, and now, it's not more valuable, but at that time, because it was new, and different and a new way of working...the difference between this, though, and the description of texts and materials, is that one is more profound. One is a way of working that changes the whole approach we take to work or teaching. While materials and methods in the sense I used it, is that it is given, you are given to add to what you already do.

R. I understand. Let's talk about the general development of the teacher. Is that too general a question?

A. No. It's a basic question. General development being...well, let's put it in the context of what we see in most teachers once they're finished their teacher education. They go out, their first two years are difficult, then it becomes easier and easier. And then they take on a side business or build a house - something that's external to teaching. Because that's where the challenge is, rather than keeping the challenge in teaching and within themselves.

R. Is there anything else besides challenge that they're trying to find outside?

A. Yes, stimulation, because human beings are looking for something new in learning, it's in that context. We need and want something new, otherwise we become apathetic.

Interview #3. R. You mentioned that you had been thinking about inservice-curriculum development. Is there anything you'd like to share about that?

A. I started thinking about what inservice means "in-service" (slowly). In-servicing, is giving a certain perspective of what it is to be human and what it is to be a teacher. That perspective is that we must always learn, but that we always learn by being stimulated from the outside. Learning is not a natural process that we go through and that we push ourselves through. It's presuming that somebody else has to come and tell you about things, and that naturally we don't go out to find those things. Now, I'm not saying it's a wrong perspective, to think that is the perspective that is adopted.

R. You think that is the most generally adopted way of thinking about inservice?

A. Well, I'm not necessarily thinking that, but just the fact that there is inservice is saying that. Saying that teachers, to function in their classroom, periodically we need to stimulate them with information that comes from the outside. Therefore, experiences that are foreign and new to them, often theoretical, and bring that to them. And in turn we presume it will come to bear on their teaching. Now, the fact that most inservices are methods or text-book oriented tells us that we want a very direct link with what goes on in the classroom. We're trying to give the type of things that are seen as most practical that will have a direct bearing on the classroom. So, the efficiency model is at work. We give things that they will pick up and will use...rather than giving theoretical approaches, or the other side of the pole - opportunities to develop as a human being.

R. There are differences in intentions or perhaps whole sets of intentions with which teachers meet their practice. Gary Fenstermacher speaks of this, and relates these intentions to preservice, induction and inservice education.

A. Is that saying that inservice intentions rejoin pre-service intentions, or induction?

R. Generally, he comments that inservice attempts to reinforce the induction experience - the practical struggle of the initial work experience. Survival, basically, and there's nothing wrong with meeting survival needs, but the assumption that is too often made is that is all there is. If inservice education also aims to satisfy solely immediate needs, we are left with a full circle of determinancy, of instrumentalism. I had never thought of that in terms of intentionality before.

A. But is the term intention appropriate there? There is a goal, an orientation, a direction, but "intention" implies that people deliberately set out to do this. I don't think that's quite the case. The type of things that evolve from supply and demand, just like an economic system that is constantly re-adjusting itself, so that the intention plays a much less important role than just the re-adjustment.

R. I agree that there's an adjustment, but I think what is making the adjustments are the teachers' intentions. For example, if a teacher is first involved with pre-service, then induction, then involved with inservice - if that person isn't causing things to happen in their own life, with their own intention, then they're just being a puppet. And then it's true that they are only re-acting, caught up in re-adjustment. Even then, there's a spark of intentionality, dulled, I think, but this is not black and white, it's a deep philosophical issue. I haven't fully thought it through. Maybe it's a balance, a continuum between intentionality and reaction, whether in preservice, induction or inservice. (pause).

R. Referring to our last talk, I wonder if you would like to add anything to the idea of the "general development of the teacher? Could anything be added as an essential of general development?" (in addition to challenge, stimulation, newness).

A. Challenge, stimulation, newness, looking back, these seem like very improper words, to express this. What I meant by this is personal growth. Another cliche. General development...what we did with the day, that was an important part of development. I don't mean just intellectual development, neither do I mean only things that are tied to the individual, like who I am, I'm o.k., you're o.k. Much more than that. What educators had to say in the 16th century, that is important, but we think in terms of immediacy, of use. While many things could be potentially relevant. We never know where we're going to go until we use these potentially relevant things, get down the road and saying "I'm only going in because I'm only going to go so far". That's practical, sure, but if you look a little further, you're not only putting a full tank of gas and getting the car serviced, which are much more relevant in the end, but for the immediate purpose they don't seem to be. So it has to do with the type, how far the vision goes. It's the same thing with pre-service, when we start to talk about much more practical pre-service, and that ties in with the general development. "What is immediately relevant?" That's like short-vision, and that's what we aim for. That's understandable, historically. Objectives are part of that. We don't want to look on the long term, we just have this immediate vision because that's where efficiency is, and we can measure it. I think it's in that context, *that* general development comes in.

R. Does that have to do with the way we *meet* one another?

A. No, I don't think so; I think it has to do with the way we view knowledge, relevancy and practicality.

R. Could you describe what you mean?

A. O.K. When you're teaching a class of grade 10 students, you inevitably will get the question "Why do we need to learn this?" So the case you have to make is "Yes, we can't see why you need this right now, but you need this type of knowledge to become a full human being. You will need that, maybe later on. We don't know when in your history, but you will need it. And even if you don't need it, that's o.k., because what we're giving you is one part of opening up avenues. And maybe you won't follow *this* avenue, but what we're giving you right now is something that will allow you to further other avenues". It's the same thing with inservice. Although we don't try to answer "Why is this relevant?" We try to give things that are immediately relevant. But once you understand that to know how to teach is a way of being in the classroom - that comes to communication - once we know that, we know that we can't give recipes. All we can do is help those individuals explore as many avenues as possible: give them opportunities, not necessarily recipes.

R. Were you ever suprised by a new depth of being in an educational milieu or inservice?

A. That's another distinction I wanted to make. Inservice can be prepared inservice but then if we take the notion of inservice as furthering our knowledge, we as individuals can find avenues for inservicing. My answer to your question is in prepared inservice, most of the time not, partly because it's not intensive and it's not continuous.

R. Are there any other reasons?

A. I think those are the main reasons, also, the interest level. But the most meaningful inservices have that. So, when we go out and look for our own inservice - yes, very often I did get that feeling that you know - you have seen things a certain way. You have been exploring and exposed. All of a sudden you realize that everything you have thought has shifted a certain way. And that never again will you think the same way as before. That has come about through university courses. That's why I bring out the ideas of continuity and the intensity. I knew one or two day inservices would be superficial, whether they were substantive issues or not.

R. I was going to ask you to describe a best and a worst sequence of inservice-curriculum development, but I think you've just answered that.

A. Yes, and to that, add what I was talking about in the first session - the imposition. When you're coming to university courses, for example, you're coming willingly, most of the time, with an open attitude. While during the short inservices there was an attitude of revolt, which didn't surface but was latent.

R. What can a classroom teacher bring to contribute to a longer-lasting inservice or curriculum development? Let's assume there is a curriculum development that has continuity and is relatively intensive - what can a classroom teacher bring concretely to that situation?

A. They can bring a lot. Not only can they bring a lot but they can take a lot, because that type of situation becomes a sharing. A sharing of what I do, and what you do, and it's a planning as well. In concrete terms...let's distinguish this situation from a more common situation where a classroom teacher is elected and goes and works for the Ministry for "X" number of hours, an elitist approach. But where everyone paticipates, over a long term, the teachers know what the curriculum is, and they have a commitment to it, in a giving and sharing. So they know that parts of it they don't agree with, but in the give and take they use it, and they teach that, and they're much more committed to teaching the parts that they have provided to the curriculum. It seems to me to be an ideal way of getting teachers who are beginning: not only are they teaching, but at the same time they're helping to compose the material that they'll be teaching.

R. I believe that - curriculum development is educative, it's being mutually developed. Every new teacher, especially the first year, we're striving to make the material fit to us. We have a book here, there. We try to integrate it and make it our own. In making it our own we alter it, we develop it - that's educative.

A. Yes, that's curriculum development at a personal level. It's essential but it is expensive, quality; administrators want to know the benefits in dollars and cents.

Interview #4. R. One of the phrases that came up in last day's talk was "a natural process of learning". Could you wax eloquent about what that phrase means to you? I think it was in relation to your experience that many inservices were not a natural process of learning.

A. It comes from a basic belief that we don't recognize that learning goes on all the time; and we talk about "motivating learning"...making learning artificial, making learning what we want it to be. Without recognizing that learning comes from the inside of the individual. "Natural process" in that context meant something that I learn every day as I do all the time, learning something. That natural process capitalizes on this, and inservices most of the time are like the inservices we do to our students - we just ram it into their heads. And then we wonder why they don't use it. Or why it doesn't mean anything to them.

R. I think there's a lot of truth in that, but it's hard to get at.

A. It's a paradox.

R. It is in a way, we have societal needs, a necessity for the society to demand certain things - it has to do that to maintain its structure...

A. I think the basic thing we need to teach from the societal perspective is responsibility. Once responsibility is learned, we can allow the individual to learn and develop.

R. That's my experience too, then the "natural learning" really take off. That's it eh?

A. Yes, because responsibility means that you're not going to invade other people's territory. It's respect.

R. And you're carrying your load. I believe that fully...I did have another question: Why do we need to learn "faithfully"? As you spoke about a "natural process of learning", I began to think about my own experience where the teachers that ignored that were the ones that lacked faith that their students wouldn't just go completely beserk if they were given the opportunity to become responsible to make choices, mistakes, and to contrast right and wrong...

A. I'm not sure I understand the question, but two things: one, is the word "faith" - when I get away from a sense of religion, I see faith as hope, a confidence in others. The second thing is that the creation of an environment is part of it, but the biggest part is the attitude, and we can very often present things in a very rigid way, but it depends on what attitude things are presented. When that attitude is an open, accepting - accepting our own responsibility and the responsibility of others that is like magic. I'm not sure that meets the question.

R. It is, I think; what is the opposite of faith?

A. Despair. Non-belief. I mean as soon as you don't believe in others in their strength, you have lost, lost openness.

R. Is despair cynicism?

A. On the intellectual level. But cynicism is not believing that others and self are capable.

R. A good point, because how else can we reach to this capacity, this capability, unless we believe, full-heartedly that we can in some way reach it.

A. The best inservice that teachers could have is to try to get them away from the idea that students are morons, dumb. How often do teachers who feel this way come back to the staff room and just complain, complain, complain...

R. What are alternative ways of consultants or curriculum specialists visiting schools?

A. An alternative, probably too expensive, would be if Department heads be not only Department heads for the curriculum but be there, and be the kind of people who encourage human growth; human development rather than just curriculum development - that they be soul-searchers. Those are people that are close to the teachers, they have then more time, and that they concentrate on human development.

R. Human development is central in inservice because of the idea of responsibility - of both teacher and student.

A. That's what human development is all about - if teachers have it they can teach it to their students.

R. How about incentives for inservice? Is that like carrots for the donkey? But are there any proper incentives?

A. The alternative to incentives is to screen out the people who shouldn't be there. I think incentives should come by themselves. Things should happen on a smaller scale and then grow - the incentive is built in.

R. Yes, to my mind there would either be external incentives or there was going to be education - one of the two.

A. We don't want to undo what we're trying to do by setting up incentives. (pause)

R. What would be an appropriate way of evaluating inservice?

A. In the traditional sense, inservice can always be evaluated in terms of its objectives, its focus through open-ended rather than closed questions. But for an ideal inservice, evaluation is being done all the time. (pause).

R. How can we prevent the patching together of little bits of inservice or curriculum development here and there?

A. Change the focus. Do inservice on more basic questions, then methodologies will follow of themselves.

R. Responsibility...do you believe your children can succeed in some manner? How? Why not?

A. Yes, these type of questions. More than patching, synthesis of opposing ideas is important.

SECOND ORDER VALIDATION OF THE INTERVIEWS.

After each interview had been transcribed and typed, the author made a summary interpretation of each interviewee's contribution to the research. These summaries were presented to each of the participants in written form. The researcher then asked each of them to point out any distortions or deletions they might find that caused variance between the summaries and their original interview dialogue.

Each of the interviewee's reactions to the individual summary were recorded, transcribed, and typed to become the second-order validations of the research. Thus, just as their original intentions and underlying meanings had been sought through first-order validation during the interviews, second-order validation occured when each participant gave their approval and made amendments to the succinct summaries the author had made of their whole research contribution.

In the following paragraphs, the author's original interpretive summaries will be presented, followed by each of the interviewee's validating responses (as transcribed from the final tapes).

THE AUTHOR'S SUMMARY OF 'A''S CONTRIBUTION.

'A' appeared to regard general faults of inservice to be: that the speeches were often uninspiring, that their emphasis on new techniques and materials was irrelevant, and they they were neither intensive nor continuous. Further, she felt their short duration caused their superficiality, and that latent revolt felt by teachers during inservice was due to administrative imposition of "unnatural learning". 'A' differentiated between methods that profoundly affect our whole teaching approach and recipe-like description of texts and materials. She made a solid point in distinguishing prepared inservice from individual drive to learn.

She spoke of learning "exploring and exposed" toward the realization of a shift in the way one thinks. This shift may be akin to the "Ah-ha moment" wherein vulnerability to newness is balanced by one's courage in self-resolution. 'A' seems to say that the optimum inservice aim is that which will simultaneously serve student and teacher. Then, the complaint syndrome that teachers sometimes become habituated to is side-tracked. 'A' has made a number of comments upon the quality of participation possible in inservice. She has spoken about the roots of commitment in the teacher's making an educative change themselves, sharing their ideas, living with one another, and reaching balanced decisions through collaboration. She has spoken about the importance of allowing responsible choices, and the making of mistakes - which requires a faith in human dignity. 'A' has implied that a similar trust is prerequisite between administration and teachers to experience worthwhile inservice activity.

'A' explained the central role of the curriculum coordinator was to establish an intimate relationship with each of the teachers involved in making the change, and secondarily to establish the important links between subject matter and the teachers' work. She spoke of wishing to know more about oneself as a person (not simply toward increased congeniality). She stressed the importance of learning more about how one portrays oneself in class. This was a line of thought relevant to teachers' preferences in the possibilities of inservice activities.

'A' spoke very lucidly about the different responsibilities intrinsic to teaching, distinct from inservice: she mentioned that inservice was the time alloted for the teacher to develop - to become a student again. Thus our wanting to be instructed became vital...thereby an inner challenge to oneself could exist, as well as the collegial challenge that might take place in a group. 'A' implied that such educative stimulation is essential for our self-renewal as teachers. She emphasized the importance of our general development as educators, toward gaining long-range insights that are (perhaps) super-practical in their focus beyond immediate needs. 'A' explained that relevant knowledge must mean more than a collection of facts (as tools), but an integrated gathering of ideas that contribute to one's responsible vision - with which to meet life.

In thinking about needs-assessment, 'A' provided a contrast between considerations of ways of being versus a focus on immediate needs; that is the consideration of opportunities in potential versus mandated recipes.

'A''S RESPONSE TO THE AUTHOR'S SUMMARY.

"My first reaction is that it sounds different from the way I felt it when I said it. It's not to say that it's wrong - it just sounds different. Regarding 'a shift in the way you think' being arrived at during inservice: you're putting it on the emotional scale, and what I meant was more a shift of paradigm, in thinking... that moment that transforms all of your thinking from one way into another. It's just like entering into feminist studies. We've been conditioned to think like men have been and as we enter into feminist studies we get into points where the whole thinking shifts because of certain details that have led up to this moment. Our whole thinking shifts and we don't see the world in the same way anymore. Learning becomes a series of shifts. It's like gradually turning around and making half-turns every time. I meant it on the intellectual level. Of course it becomes an emotional issue.

The optimum inservice aim is not an 'aim', it is the ultimate inservice way of life. It is one that will eventually serve the teacher and the student, in the sense that the teacher, in learning new things, becomes interested. It's an interest in learning that keeps on. And while the teacher is a learner, that teacher can understand the students. But at the same time, it's a simultaneous relationship. I recall we talked about sharing with the students. Eventually, the inservice is for the teacher and the student.

I think the question of trust between administrations and teachers doesn't mean that the administration will prepare an inservice and the teachers are going to trust. But if you mean a sharing is requisite between administration and teachers...it's not trust alone - it's cooperation, collaboration. Trust alone is when we look at the separate camps and say 'Can one trust the other?' But when trust is with collaboration it's a different matter.

What I meant by "portrayal" is not psychologically, not me as a person. It's not a matter of how I display myself to the world. I think what I meant is more like growing as a person, in all ways. I guess there's a fine line between the type of workshop that says "I'm o.k. - you're o.k." and this type of thing, facile psychological stuff, and something much deeper than that of how one relates to the world. How one relates in general, the psychological entity being part of it, including the meaning of being in class. It's the bigger question of the relationship between the student and the teacher in the classroom, or the person in general."

THE AUTHOR'S SUMMARY OF 'J'S' CONTRIBUTIONS.

'J' has expressed that in her experience, a variety of worthwhile inservices have somehow resulted in rigidity and boredom in schools. She has cited the essential value of retaining close connections with children, and actively taking part in an inservice to make it worthwhile. 'J' has placed faith in problem-solving activities and stresses the importance both of an administration's and a teacher's receptivity to individual interests and purposes in education.

Interestingly, 'J's' inservice experience corresponds with the author's in that she found the introduction to material resources (i.e. gym equipment) to be catalytic in absorbing teachers' interest and enthusiasm. She valued inservices that sought to expand teachers' perception of the educative act, rather than singularly adding to their subject-field knowledge base.

'J' has shared her memories of actual prolonged internship in North York wherein two inductees were able to pair-off with an experienced teacher. She saw this as a financially costly but highly worthwhile effort that also disavowed classroom isolation. She provided many insights on the value of cooperative supervision that emphasized mutual planning and the respected role of supervisor as master-teacher, or resource teacher. 'J' has cited the pivotal role of the principal forming an "unfragmented school"; and their increasing managerial focus, which is displacing the principal who is a master-teacher.

'J' has remarked on the importance of the teacher becoming a student toward their own ongoing education.

In addition, she noted that she was able to develop her own philosophy of education by her absorption in summer training sessions with British educators. These sessions contributed to 'J''s ability to formulate a stand against the inhibiting nature of many classes.

She emphasizes accepting students, seeing into their potential, and 'J' speaks highly of inservice that involve student demonstrations. Correspondingly, as a supervisor, 'J' spoke of accepting teachers, not trying to "hurry them into" a method for their childrens' sake. She has spoken of the importance of maintaining a balance between work and play, labour and recreation; and the necessity of changing one's perspective to truly see into one's responsibilities.

'J' also made a number of comments about procedures, highlighting "force-field analysis" of needs, described as the sharing of weighted opinions by a group to discover where changes are felt to be needed. This group deliberation led to a gauging of potential among possible courses of action, taking one step at a time, sharing continuing evaluation of how best to proceed.

'J''S RESPONSE TO THE AUTHOR'S SUMMARY.

"I wanted to question inservice's displacing deadly rigidity and boredom in schools and the desire to press more the positive point - that inservices come in many shapes and sizes and that I think that they can be tremendously stimulating. Well planned inservice can break deadly rigidity.

I was discussing the close connection with children that is essential for teachers and supervisors, and principals. Also, this business of receptivity to individual interests and purposes in education, this also flows as a receptivity between the consultant and the teacher. Not only were the new materials catalytic in absorbing teachers' interest and enthusiasm, but they had a catalytic effect on changing the direction and philosophy of the teachers. The necessitated change of content and the handiness of the children caused a change of philosophy.

Cooperative supervision had two potentials in the way it was expressed here. I think there's a great deal of cooperative effort needed among supervisory staff between people with different specialities. I think what gravitates against that effort are the feelings of inadequacy that many of them have. They have not been trained to work together just as many teachers have not been taught to "team" for open-concept. Narrowness exists. Not only is there internal cooperation between supervisors called for, but cooperation between the supervisor and the school staff. The way to bring both external and internal cooperation together is by encouraging the school staff to carry on their interests when the supervisors leave. This is to be done cooperatively - not imposed.

Some administrators, particularly principals, have not been placed in their position because of their master-teacher status but because they're good businessmen. Not only are they developing those skills, but people are giving them the impression that those are the skills that they want. "System" is the operative word. Systems-operation pre-dominates in the scene. I want a person-man, not a systems-man in there, because they can change, they can change the school.

The teacher is an ongoing student, who is in the process of becoming all the time. We can't say that we've arrived simply because we have a degree. There might be the feeling that there's no sense in inservicing those people with degrees - they have arrived. This is not adequate in relation to the children.

You're talking about procedures in inservice in picking out force-field analysis ideas. You're looking at techniques. The cooperative supervision technique was a very strong one, for me. The principal's ability to activate group deliberation is important. Really it's the shared decision-making; the feeling that the deisions that are made belong to us.

In terms of supervision, I'm amazed that more boards do not try to educate supervisory staff. I suppose that educational administration in this faculty is to do that. If supervisory staff are able to see potential in children and work with group deliberations among the children, they are better able to do that with their colleagues in the supervisory role. Somebody has got to take the initiative in terms of supervisory training. Either school boards have to send the supervisory staff to courses if they think they have the potential or encourage a large group of supervisors like we had in North York, to have a professional organization in which they are mutually to develop one anothers' talents. It was a growing time, and that group of supervisors really stimulated one another in their association. We worked out ideas and procedures and ways of working with teachers and groups of teachers and ways of sharing materials of different kinds. Supervisor-principal interaction is indispensable. I guess the thing that bothers me so much about educators is the walls that are put up between University professors and supervisors and between supervisors and principals. You know, the kids are the only ones that suffer in the end. So we don't care much about kids if we allow silly bickerings to go on to make walls between one another. Continuing dialogue is important, but time constraints put severe pressures on decision-making."

THE AUTHOR'S SUMMARY OF 'T''S CONTRIBUTION.

He has recalled some of his inservice experiences in an east-coast province, emphasizing the worth of individual reflection as well as group sharing or brainstorming on the part of commited teachers. At the same time 'T' lamented the difficulties of encountering apathy or stubborn close-mindedness in some teachers who appeared unwilling to participate in making educative change. While he described one-shot affairs of hastily-organized "speeches to the masses", his appreciation of curriculum change processes caused him to think they were inherently more educational. To offset the intensification of teachers' lives caused by increasing accountability and prescription by administration, 'T' has suggested that more time be alloted to deliberative practices. As particularly valuable, he offered a focus on questioning rather than slavishly pouncing on solutions. He expanded on this notion as a kind of research orientation, that might exist in addition to the structures of efficiency necessary to a bureaucracy.

'T' noted that his own interests spurred much of his professional development. At the same time, he was open to being educated by others who "converted" or informed him through the intensity of their own convictions, and by their example. He differentiated between being inserviced, and being in the service of children. The latter understanding included problematizing the act of teaching toward reforming practice. Regarding such change, 'T' claimed that it couldn't be legislated system-wide, but that it must come about within each person, slowly. Therefore, he prized inservice that was locally-focused, related to the practical situation, and not reduced to techniques.

'T' spoke of the perspective of "the stranger", which he likened to being objective, as the person (new to Newfoundland, for example) who is able to see the situation at hand with a fresh perspective. Nevertheless, the respect the stranger receives can be mixed with the belief that he "doesn't really know". 'T' holds respect both for the mind-stretching theory available - that combats parochialism, as well as the needs and special strengths of particular schools, teachers and students. By maintaining this dual respect, the imposition of educational change is deterred.

On the other hand, he points out that administrative short-cuts are too often made. Teachers are co-opted into an administrative frame of reference that "short-cuts" an educative process of deliberation and action when this process takes place in the mind of an administrator who then proceeds to implement those decisions. 'T' describes an administrator optimally as a teacher among others in the school, who exercises leadership. He contrasts this sort of role-perception with that of administrator as school manager.

He contends that a large-scale trend toward specialization is fragmenting the educational process even as curriculum improvement, teacher-aid, instructional supervision are made with good intentions on the part of a bureaucracy that nevertheless vigilantly cuts corners towards efficiency. 'T' maintains that specialized knowledge in a particular subject field may have little or no bearing on the quality of pedagogic understanding one is capable of.

He explained the value of admitting our limitations, even failure, because the beginning of the hermeneutic task is when man doesn't know how to proceed, when he gets stopped and has to reflect. 'T' stated that he'd address schooling needs not with mountains of materials, but by paying more attention to the childrens' sense of the curriculum, and by focusing on everyday classroom decisions and tensions.

'T''s RESPONSE TO THE AUTHOR'S SUMMARY.

"These comments are very general, they're removed from the concrete...quite abstract. Some of these I'd say 'o.k. in certain situations, that generalization is clear, true'. Another case I'd say 'No'. That's the problem about general statements. In the case of teacher participation in inservice, you may have a teacher who is willing to pose his ideas against the ideas of a particular change. In doing that, the person may be willing to enter into dialogue with people who are proposing the new idea. To some extent that person may be willing to make their beliefs public - that displays a certain kind of openness. This is contrary to simply criticizing a teacher who is stubborn and close-minded. That may be a problem, but often that may simply be an assumption made about "resistors" (teachers who resist change in schools). Teachers who resist may be doing so for a very good reason. And that change may be not that good an idea - very technical, hyper-rational, removed from the world of teaching. So I'd like to qualify "resistance", so that it isn't necessarily interpreted as stubborness or apathy. When a teacher doesn't particularly want to think about what they are doing or discuss it, that's where apathy exists.

An increasing problem of working in the school situations is that there's very little opportunity allowed for deliberation. Its not so much the problem of individual teachers being put upon, but if you look at how deliberation is dealt with in the structure: 'What does this change here mean for the way I'm presently teaching? What are my main goals in teaching social studies? (for example) How does this change my main goals? What kind of relationships do I have with my students in my social studies class - and how does this change it? How does this change the nature of knowledge in social studies?' Specific, concrete things, in the context of my teaching situation. What we should be doing is looking at how is that kind of deliberation being fostered or prevented in everyday life in schools? I guess my point here is that because of such things as increasing accountability and prescription of programs, and people's attention being turned to evaluation - pupil and teacher evaluation, that the opportunities to really sit back and reflect upon these things are really not there. Administrative and managerial needs are becoming too intrusive in many aspects of teaching.

Underneath specific changes there are certain universals like "How is this helping kids to grow? How is this helping kids to mature? How is this helping to build a better society? How is this helping kids to live in society? How is this helping the school to be a better place to be for kids and teachers?" All these things are almost universals which underlie changes. Sooner or later I think we have to question the value of the change measured against those universals.

Research can be about practice, things that have worked in the past, but the administrative tendency is to "short-cut" by picking up these things and using them as techniques. For example, my research shows that collegiality allows things to be inserviced much better. Teachers are more likely to adopt things if they're introduced in a collegial fashion. If that's taken as a technique, then the collegial relationships can themselves become altered. We can't pick collegiality up as a mere tool, it is a relationship established between people. But by setting up a program that sets conditions for people to speak, to name their own reality, to deal with a change -

that shows a respect for the person, for their own educative process. The philosophy is retained in the program. If you honestly believe in the value of collegial relationships, of course you can make use of those relationships in order to assist change. Collegiality can be allowed to develop within the school when you don't say 'This and this and this constitute collegiality, therefore institute these - 1, 2, 3, 4.' False collegiality".

THE AUTHOR'S SUMMARY OF 'G''S CONTRIBUTIONS.

'G' has ironically noted that even the teachers who have developed a particular curriculum have been "inserviced" by central office on that curriculum without particular attention being given to their role in developing the subject of the inservice. In part this represents an administrative assumption of incompetence or lack of knowledge that 'G' remarks has fairly consistently resulted in disasterous inservice experiences. He has exemplified such "shot-gun" inservices as a political showcase for the board by senior administrators.

In contrast, 'G' described effective inservices as those that were quiet, with teachers working on curriculum development toward the delineation of a unit that clicks in one's classroom, and that works for one's colleagues. Thus inservice is necessarily a collegial process, not based on administrative fiat. 'G' defined collegiality as a process of reaching common principles through mutual respect and admiration that is staff-wide, through personal aura. He further cited the "instant credibilty" of the professional teacher with a good teaching background and expertise in the subject being considered for inservice. 'G' underlined the necessity of discussion, and the importance of gleaning teacher needs through outlining the inservice ahead of time and requesting responses, then the preparation of an agenda aimed at sharing to everyone's benefit.

Both opportunities and limitations of a new curricula require consideration, in the pragmatic light of actual classroom success. Clarifying the way to proceed in making curriculum is regarded as especially important in fulfilling the needs of neophyte teachers (first survival, then creativity). 'G' also remarked on the necessity for new teachers to earn collegial respect.

He warned that the purpose of inservice mustn't become primarily a budget-matter instead of an educational opportunity. 'G' described a non-chameleon-like role of administration in administering inservice: to be involved consistently and skillfully in commmunication with teachers, at the same time grasping the collegial relationships among teachers, sensitive to what is actually happening in the present classroom situations. Administering and facilitating would be involved...and administration is more than decision-making, more than evaluating, more than finding a strategy - it must involve a lot of communicating and facilitating - making things happen. Feeding congeniality is the task of the administrator.

'G' has pointed out that the inductee teacher lacks judgment and must strive to grasp "What things are most appropriate? What level should I aim at?" etc. He has strongly underlined the necessity to never lose sight of what ought to be, involving personal reflection within the active school-day situation. At the same time 'G' has admitted the fallacy of self-indulgence in making small gains that losing sight of larger goals. However, that we mustn't be too quick in self-criticism, to miss our real successes was pointed out.

'G' has noted the value in understanding the importance of a teacher's orientation in learning, and further the need to make follow-ups that take account of the possible progression of learning. He strongly recommended that a teacher reflect on "What is the best way to proceed?" in developing curriculum, and that they, further, put themselves in the place of other teachers and ask both what they would want and what they wouldn't want in that position. He believes that teachers develop in experience, in understanding of philosophy, and in skill content, in an atmosphere of respect.

'G''S RESPONSE TO THE AUTHOR'S SUMMARY.

In the case of central office individuals doing

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inservice, we really have a justification of their position. They themselves feel they have to do it, and have to work towards adding to the inservice budget if at all possible to insure that their job is not endangered. That's even more important these days when the safest place is in the classroom, not in an administrative position that could be suddenly determined to be not as significant as putting a teacher in front of kids.

While collegiality is valuable, essential, this doesn't mean that there is no sense of direction from what is new. There has to be some conceptualization of what the innovation is. Once one understands the innovation itself, the best place for additional development to occur is with the teachers themselves.

Concerning the judgment of the beginning teacher: it's not a lack of judgment per se, but a lack of judgment on the basis of experience. Judgment comes from the experience. The new teachers are growing into their capability. 'The way to proceed' isn't to be considered as a merely technical question - it may address other levels."

THE AUTHOR'S SUMMARY OF F'S CONTRIBUTION.

'F' has characterized inservice education as often wearing rose-coloured glasses. Experiences have been narrowly focused, they have lacked cognizance of developing the whole teacher in a continuous process. The inservice organizers' horizons on education are often rigid and directionless; and organizationally, it is questionable whether there is much commitment to actual change, (both on the part of teachers and administrators). Also, inservice activities are often inconsequential in nature when compared to the frustrating demands upon teachers that daily increase in intensity.

On the other hand, 'F' has indicated the contribution of actual teacher demonstrations toward making a dynamic, meaningful inservice. Further, he has explained how curriculum development became a valuable form of inservice teacher education, both in the intellectual challenge of creating methodologies and resources for other classroom teachers as well as in therapeutic jam-sessions with fellow-teachers in which class problems could be shared and solutions could be sought. The improvement of 'F''s self-concept as a curriculum "author" was also noted. He stressed the importance of a teacher's acknowledging that they're fallible, if they themselves are to learn collegially. Thus, one could gain in knowledge, understanding, and interpretation.

Regarding the induction year, he remarked that student-teachers appear to receive more support from established teachers. He offered a possible alternative to this isolation might lie in a form of internship wherein the neophyte teacher would be certificated but guided by the whole staff. Further, 'F' pointed out that the pressure on a first-year teacher to "do it right" formed rigid habits such as the tendency to deny fallability. He stressed inservice education through observation rather than simplistic book recipes, and he yearned for a closer collegiality among teachers wherein faults could be admitted and corrected, mutually.

'F' expressed concern over administrative absorption in political exigencies over educative values. He characterized this as an abroggation of responsibility. He suggested a possible antidote might lie in self-reflection toward clarifying the educational purposes at hand. 'F' implied that because diagnosis is allotted little time in class life, inservice might in part concern itself with diagnosis, in all subject areas (toward discovering why students are having particular difficulties).

He perceived teacher attitude toward humility and in light of some form of idealism as essential. He denied that such fallibility should be equated with failure, but instead be conceived as realization of our limitations. At the same time 'F' warned against an idealism that is so firmly adhered-to that discouragement sets in. He suggested that inservice necessarily should be concerned with attitudinal problems in teachers, i.e. hopelessness developing from a hardening to the "wall of demands" increasingly placed upon teachers. The cultivation of moral personal attitudes within teachers might short-circuit much call for inservice, toward the art of human responsibility.

Lastly, he pointed out that two of the most valuable aspects of inservice were the calling-forth in the teacher of purposeful direction as well as any activity that inspired the teacher to put themself in another's place and thus broadened their own humanity. Thus 'F' regards those inservices which were determined according to personal relevancy to be most vital.

'F''S RESPONSE TO THE AUTHOR'S SUMMARY.

"I do believe that inservice is often directionless, but with qualifications: the inservice sessions themselves may have a goal and a purpose but within the whole scope of educational objectives, with our purpose being teachers, with whatever the goal of education is according to the curriculum designers and according to the inservice planners, I don't see that goal. There may be immediate goals according to that particular inservice, but within the scope of the whole picture, there is no scope and no direction.

Also, crucially, in the school act, or within whatever contract system exists, I think it should be made mandatory that teachers have a year off periodically if for no other reason than for direction and reflection upon where they're going. I've found the last year at University to be the best inservice of all. I think we have to destroy the myth that we know it all.

There's one other thing. If, in the induction year you work with a particular colleague on staff, you may pick up some of his mannerisms or approaches (not that that is necessarily wrong). But you may not have the opportunity to develop your own individual style - and I think that can be very restrictive.

Inservice education through direct observation is important, but so is experience. Something that is very crucial is that right from the moment a student teacher enrols in a teachers college they should have activities within a school environment as well as their own studies at the University. That access is mandatory for doctors and lawyers - the exposure to see others practising in action from the word "go". It's not enough just to self-reflect. You've got to be able to share that knowledge.

Fallibility should be equated not so much to limitations as lack of experience and knowledge - those are things we can gain through the years. I would also like to add one point which I think is crucial to inservice being directed towards diagnosis, and relevant also to the hopelessness that many teachers feel. I think that its very important if there is to be proper communication and proper understanding at all levels of teaching we will have to do away with the segregation of board and teachers in any matter other than salary negotiations. I think in an inservice it is crucial that the board has to know how we feel in the classroom. If there is to be any improvement in understanding teachers' problems in the classroom, it is essential that board members be involved in inservice activities with teachers. They're not ogres, they're human beings too, doing a job. If they're not directly informed of what is happening - how can they do what can be in teachers' best interests? They have to experience the teacher's life-world in the classroom. Just as I think we, as teachers, we have a responsiblity to attend the occasional board meetings to understand their perspective."

CHAPTER 4

The Disclosure of Themes in the Research Findings

A number of themes were found to arise throughout the interviews for two reasons: 1) because of the interviewees' experience or concerns in related areas, 2) because the researcher had noted particular emphasis of a theme within some of the discussions and re-introduced the idea in later interviews. These recurring themes were: 1) Why inservice has not succeeded 2) Broad conceptions of the inservice act 3) Collegiality in inservice education 4) Administration and the administrator's special role of leadership during inservice 5) Conscience - how teachers at once maintain their ideals and address concrete problems 6) A reinterpretation of needs-assessment.

The content of the interviews will now be reviewed relative to the above six themes. Much of the wording and colour of the original interviews will be retained, and some specific quotes will be included in the following overview.

Why Inservice Has Not Succeeded

The interviewees' comments about the faults inherent in their inservice experiences were focused on both the quality and organization of the inservice activity itself as well as on teachers' attitudes as they have experienced such inservice. Many of these comments are expanded upon in the themes that are to follow.

Inservice activity. Regarding the quality and organization of inservice activity itself, "one-shot affairs" that were likened to speeches to the masses were criticized. Such "instant inservice" was felt to be caused by two main factors: 1) While each inservice session may have had its own immediate goal, the wider scope of educational aims and continuing curriculum concerns were often ignored. 2) Indescriminate matching of teachers with the program of inservice occurred. For example, central office staff have uniformly 'inserviced' all district teachers with respect to a curriculum change, even though numerous teachers within that district developed the curriculum themselves.

Teachers' mandatory attendance at uninspiring inservice speeches has been described as superficial, and social in nature, not aimed at an exchange of ideas nor truly questioning. Even when issues were thought to be substantive, one or two-day inservices were criticized for their superficiality of exchange and for being devoid of intensity and continuity. In contrast, the act of curriculum development was regarded as inherently highly educative because more time is alloted and teachers' deliberations are not prevented by reflexive bureaucratic prescription.

Inservice activities were described as being essentially "rose-coloured" because they often have not addressed classroom realities. Idealism was not thereby condemned, but lack of overall direction was. That is, an over-emphasized specialism was criticized because even given curriculum guides, objectives and textbooks, the relationship between each subject with broader educational aims and societal urgencies has often been ignored.

> "Education should be designed to develop the whole individual, to prepare him for life and to prepare him to make a living ... There should be purpose, direction, and continuity." ('F').

Specific organizational aspects of inservice were criticized. Administrative short-cuts made in the interest of bureaucratic efficiency have cost inservice education in the quality of teacher response, deliberation and the subsequent lack of exploration into actual school problems. Diminishing the teachers' participation in planning the inservice has been exemplified as a multiple-choice selection of activities: "This is the problem, now choose A, B, or C". A set focus on methodologies and recipes for executing program materials has caused teachers to respond to inservice with low personal interest or commitment to making change.

It was felt that much that passes for inservice teacher education was not naturally educative, in that it isn't often recognized that many teachers are already absorbed in a process of learning on a continuous basis. Instead, "motivating teachers' learning" has been a consideration of high priority that is too often exemplified by short-term artificial programming of new methods of knowledge.

Teachers' attitudes. Regarding teachers' attitudes as they have experienced inservice, a serious difficulty was noted in eliciting teacher enthusiasm for learning. Sharing enthusiasm of inservice learning beyond particular, commited core groups was regarded as impeded by: 1) commited resistance to unwanted change ie., the English teacher who disregards a new creative-writing approach because he or she believes grammatical form is more important than content substance. 2) disinterest on the part of teachers to be involved in inservice. This disinterest may stem from conflicting commitments, lack of devotion to their professional duties, or "burnt-out" disillusionment in their role as a teacher.

> "You might get the idea of inservice as a verb. Someone is inserviced - that puts a very different cast on the activity than if you're talking of you and others who are in the service of children, who have a sense of serving" ('T').

Community and family disintegration weigh heavily on teachers' shoulders. Teachers' job responsibilities are further intensified by committee-work, class-planning, teaching, evaluation, and supervision - which were seen to diffuse their efforts. Such slavish riveting of the teacher's attention toward solutions of immediate problems was thought to disengage them from a focus on questioning. A vigorous attitude toward research activity is thus considered to be placed in jeopardy. On the other hand, many teachers were thought to hold attitudes of latent revolt toward inservices aimed at solving the questions considered vital at the district level. Both inservicers and teachers being inserviced were described as often inured to the system, and locked into narrow experiences that lead to the increase of rigidity and boredom in actual classrooms.

It was felt that the existence of such rigid attitudes might in part be ameliorated by periodic reflection and rediscovery of general educative purposes through such opportunities as sabbatical leave. Teachers might thereby recalibrate their priorities, one-step removed from the intense responsibilities of their classroom. At the same time, the patching-together of bits of seemingly unrelated inservice might be transcended if teachers were to reflectively synthesize fundamental educative questions that consistently underly the variety of inservice concerns. Examples of such fundamental questions were cited as issues such as responsibility, effort, the students' interest, and discipline.

The teachers themselves, through this coherent reflection, would provide the undergirding continuity in their education, throughout various inservice activities.

Broad Conceptions of the Inservice Act

Distinct from criticisms that the interviewees have made about inservice, many of their comments reflected broad conceptions of inservice education. These conceptions arose from the interviewees' experiences as well as from their insight on the organization of those experiences. Their comments identified both what made inservice especially meaningful to them and the structure of inservice experiences.

Meaningful inservices. Inservices became especially meaningful because as teachers they had a part in it, interacting with other teachers. In their activities, they felt involved in a new beginning that was fun, dynamic, and in tune with their general learning process. Inservices in which they could step back and become learners were highly valued.

Teachers fresh from their own classes, who felt currently connected with children, were closely attended to by fellow teachers during workshops. The respect that the workshop leaders held for children who participated in the inservice was taught by example. Seeing demonstrations involving a colleague participating with students enabled other teachers to rise above "blaming the victim" - the habitual complaining about student behaviour. At the same time, the convincing portrayal of successful teaching during demonstrations stimulated sharing of knowledge among teachers.

> "The inservice leader had pre-school children with him; it made a big difference ...Learning should be fun, it's not something that you just sit down and have it happen to you. You are a part of the learning process as a child and as a teacher in inculcating that kind of special attitude toward learning". ('F').

Teachers' mutually interpretive efforts made their inservice more than mindless stimulation. Instead, the educative experience could be characterized as personally informative, quiet, and voluntary. Highly prized were jam-sessions wherein fallibility could be admitted and class problems and solutions shared. Teachers' professional development was optimally conceived as a logical extension of their previous interest and commitments. It was held that inservice education was most meaningful when the teacher's perspective was sought; whether the activities involved the development of methods for teachers, resources for students, or district curriculum.

The structure of inservice experience. The foundation of structure in worthwhile inservice was attributed to the participants' devotion to the relationship between teacher and child. High priority was given to inservice that evidenced innate caring for children. Inservice was conceived not as a verb but as a meeting of those in-the-service of children and society. Inservice was thus thought to properly stem from a problematization of the teachers' own situation rather than a pre-determined imposition of theory.

Inservice leaders who demanded hard work through a problem-solving approach were much-appreciated. Problem-solving was regarded as an exploration of new ideas and activities until a shift of understanding occured. Pushing ones own understanding further and remaining vulnerable to the fallibility of one's previous perspectives were felt to be necessary. Problem-solving demanded slow changes, within each person, not system-wide, immediate legislation. Thus, inquiry in inservice that would further the teacher's own knowledge and his or her understanding of the pedagogic act was contrasted with a prepared program of inservice. An example of inservice inquiry was the training of teachers' observation to discover potential in students whom they observed in action, followed by a sharing of ideas with the students. A variety of unique responses to problems was both acceptable and encouraged.

> "Changes have to take place slowly, and changes have to take place within each person. We can't legislate that kind of change, system-wide, it's got to be done locally, with teachers". ('T').

Material resources, such as new climbing apparatus in the gymnasium, served as a catalyst for making other changes in scheduling, in activities, philosophy and curriculum. That is, not knowing what to do with new equipment, teachers often stepped back and watched how it might be used (both by students and resource teachers). Thus they learned through their unfamiliarity with the new equipment and their willingness to step-back and see the opportunities it might provide.

Three different levels of inservice were regarded as essential: 1) Survival inservice, that explains valuable methods, knowledge and class procedures for the neophyte teacher. 2) Development inservice, that expands knowledge in minor fields of non-specialist teachers who have gained some class experience. 3) Creative inservice to re-invigorate and expand the interests of competent, experienced teachers.

Better than piloting pre-made course material was curriculum development. Such activity was considered as valuable inservice education because a sharing of classroom approaches took place in a repartee of exchange that was commited to actual classroom improvements. Teachers' self-concepts were enriched both through teacher community with the occasional shining example of a master teacher and the role-expansion realized in authoring a curriculum. Re-thinking activities that "clicked" in one's own classroom so that they would do the same in colleagues' classes was sufficient incentive for involved teachers to strive for excellence in inservice. No carrot for the donkey was necessary when education itself appeared to be the prime incentive.

> "The inservice and curriculum development experiences that were more worthwhile tended to be quiet...working on a unit that "clicks" in the classroom, that you share with your colleagues, that works for them - that's great".('G').

Collegiality

In addition to general consideration of the value of collegiality during inservice teacher education, interviewees specifically referred to the sensitive nature of a teacher's induction year as well as the place that inservice collegiality might occur.

Place of collegiality. There were two arenas that were regarded as especially valuable for collegial inservice activities: 1) a forum removed from the school that is familiar to the teachers, where ideas from both experienced and new teachers could be shared with some enthusiasm. 2) actual classroom observations by both teachers and principals, where constructive comments could be made that would be oriented to discipline and related to actual circumstances.

> "Well, many, many teachers were saying that what they want is just time to talk to each other - they just wanted to share...(as a coordinator) I spent a good four months visiting everyone of them in their classrooms, outside their classrooms; giving suggestions, giving books that they might use". ('A').

Collegiality in the induction year. The neophyte teacher's induction year was felt to be very different from the student-teaching experience. While the student is busy sorting out the ideal from the actual, the first-year teacher is busy coping with many pressing responsibilities. In the interviews it was noted that the new teacher was usually not informed of this distinct change that is expected to come about in their intentions as they change roles. It is not a question of the inductee becoming "more practical" than the student teacher, but that they temporarily alter their orientation, toward a "survival" intentionality.

The question "What forms of collegial support are actually extended to the first year teacher?" arose in the interviews. It was understood that such support was restricted both by a less helpful attitude on the part of students and colleagues as well as by the inductee's inability to ask for help. The inductee often lives in self-isolation, afraid to be "put down or put under" as he or she feels acutely that they must go into their class and "Do it right". Rather than feeling at liberty to ask "Look, my classroom management skills need improvement, can you help?" the neophyte is frequently not met with collegial trust and therefore confuses their fallibility with failure.

A number of activities were suggested that could actualize administrative support for teachers in their induction year. For example, the supervisory staffs' clear demonstration of school procedures that are acceptable in a particular district was felt to be essential at the outset of the induction year. These demonstrations might constructively be followed by a coordinator's visit with each teacher's class in a spirit of sharing suggestions and resources. Secondly, a monthly forum of first-year teachers and experienced teachers was suggested. Such a forum might discuss the teachers' observation of demonstrations as well as their mutual reflection upon solutions to their own class problems. Thirdly, the concept of long-term internship was lauded. It was held that one's teaching life is greatly moulded during the induction year in that many habits are formed at that time. An example of long-term internship was given wherein two inductee teachers were given one class to teach, across the hall from an experienced, "master" teacher. While one first year teacher observed the master teacher, the other taught the class. Then, the inductees would exchange places and try out their newly-acquired skills. Also, more time and extensive personal contact was thereby made available for reflection and change. In the second term of the year, the "extra" inductee teacher was placed in her own class.

> "If you are an intern in medicine, in essence comparable to the teacher's first year - you aren't left to make the diagnosis on your own, nor left to do the operation entirely by yourself. And yet, what happens to a student teacher who gets maybe six weeks of student-teaching experience? Where is the collegial support that should be there? That first year teacher should not have his own classroom, but be like an intern doctor: he's on staff, a paid member of the profession, certificated, but he's still not on his own. He needs guidance, and direction, that should be shared by the whole staff". ('F').

A key to success in the induction year was considered to be the support one obtained from the profession itself. To encourage the "collegiality connection" in the induction year, the first-year teacher's high regard for experience is called for. The master-teacher might give the "junior partner" some valuable ideas and resources, but expectations exist that the new teacher will earn their respect. The inductee might gain respect by demonstrating their willingness to share what they have begun to develop in their major field. At the same time, experienced teachers are optimally sensitive to the beginning teacher's needs. The inductee's prime need was felt to be their insecurity in the way to proceed, more than in philosophy or student relations. That is, the first year teacher needs to ask "What are the right questions to ask?", "What are the appropriate lengths of this topic within the bounds of the curriculum?".

Collegiality takes the form of sharing between teachers who are subject specialists, while collegiality appears more as a type of guidance when it occurs between specialists and minor or neophyte teachers. Valuable collegial support was considered to enable the evolution of the inductee's judgment, then contribute to their vocabulary of ideas and at last cultivate their creativity.

The general value of collegiality. A school employing fifteen teachers was characterized as having five such teachers who were "dynamite" in their enthusiastic commitment to teaching, another five teachers who did their job but lacked dynamic engagement, and a third group of five teachers with minimal commitment to their teaching responsibilities. It was observed that the middle five teachers could obtain heightened dynamism through the inservice contributions of the first five teachers. A rationale for this observation was offered that an individual teacher with a good teaching background and expert knowledge of a subject educed respect and "instant credibility" among colleagues. Educational tunnel vison that is encouraged by class isolation could be healed by constructive collegial sharing.

Collegial participation during inservice was regarded as an admixture of encountering an organized agenda as well as socializing on the teachers' part. Such participation was seen as an opportunity for colleagues to compare notes, discuss issues, reflect on their own limitations and envision the potential of new curricula. The tone of participative sharing was pragmatic, with "ways we have succeeded" in specific classrooms using particular curricula being exchanged. Two attitudinal aspects of participation in inservice were highly valued: 1) the feeling of staff solidarity that can arise from taking the time to reach consensus 2) the heartfelt interest in the inservice that would arise when participants were encouraged to challenge the material and ideas being presented.

> "The staff needs to talk together and reflect, and go through a process together that creates a common consensus.. Collegiality is not administrative decision-making. 'Collegial' means that through a personal aura, and through a mutual respect and through an admiration that is staff-wide, we reach common understandings on principles". ('G').

It was noted that the collegial process during inservice might be in contention with administrative efficiency constraints. False collegiality was disclaimed, as was dictatorial administration. That is, drawing-out staff meetings over what sort of copying-machine to buy was seen as false collegiality. Dictatorial administration was described as organizing inservice activities not on the basis of what one knows, but because one is supposed to know.

A special case of participation in inservice came about in curriculum development. Curricula that teachers had helped compose in a long-term development process appeared highly significant in their own classroom teaching. Also, the sense that what the curriculum development team of teachers worked upon would indeed be implemented in the district made their participation highly dynamic and rewarding.

> "Curriculum development seems to me to be an ideal way of reaching teachers who are beginning. Not only are they teaching, but at the same time they're helping to compose the material that they'll be teaching...they're striving to make the material fit to them,...to make it their own". ('A').

Administration and the Administrator's Special Role of Leadership During Inservice.

During the interviews, reference was often made to the vital nature of administrative leadership during inservice. The interviewees shared their ideas on the qualities they respected in a leader, activities in which leadership was exemplified, and causes of poor leadership.

Qualities of leadership. To exercise leadership in the inservice arena, it was felt that the administrator must further conceive of themself as the teachers' colleague. As both an administrator and a teacher among teachers, the leader encourages and smooths the way for consultants, teachers and principals. Putting aside impatience toward an imperfect school system and the arrogance that might arise from pride of station, the leader at once contributes to the organizational structure and injects it with humanity. By remembering that part of themself that is a teacher, the administrator can be accepting of other teachers' participation in inservice while still being "in charge". This attitude can be distilled as "Now what will we do?".

Strictly held in-line positions are altered to advisory partnerships when an administrator is capable and willing to reflect on inservice activities as they happen. When the administrator faces a group of teachers, in the present, they might then wonder: "How much can I say? What state are these teachers in? How can I change the state they're in so they're more responsive? How much should I try to wind them up? How much will I have to accept them as being laid back?" This approach pre-empts a blanket, predetermined inservice program.

It was regarded as essential that the administrator strictly distinguish between their inservice teacher education commitments and their administrative evaluation role. Otherwise, the administrator, though capable of noticing patterns of activity unnoticeable to those immersed at the classroom level, would remain a stranger. "Strange" administrators may gain teachers' respect for their insight, but it will be a respect that demands distance and is undercut by the feeling that they don't really know, because their observations are coloured by concerns that are alien to the support the educational community really needs to make improvements.

On the other hand, administrators were felt to contribute to inservice with advice that was experience-saturated, methodological and discipline oriented, and which consistently attended to the practical situation. Thus supervisors became viewed as master-teachers capable of class demonstrations, mutual planning, and of inspiring teachers to carry further responsibilities on their own shoulders to insure the success of continuing inservice activities.

> "You see, we leave teachers alone, (pause) I mean leadership is very important. It keeps on encouraging, it smooths the way. ('T').
> "Why did they give the principal a name then? Do they not have a special training or have they been disembowelled? That's where we want to get back to the master-teacher idea". ('J').

Leadership in action. School-focused inservice highlights the principal's role. The interviews explained that a principal optimally knew their teachers well, and knew the students thoroughly through those teachers. The principal with such concrete commitment to staff and students was regarded as a pivotal bridge connecting teachers with district administration, parents and ministry curriculum. It was felt that many principals have been "burning bridges", or in other words neglecting teachers by 1) not organizing whole-school activities such as a weekly assembly for songs and dramas. But by sharing one anothers' presentations, class procedures and general atmosphere teachers could obtain weekly "inservice" that might provide insight into teaching, and break isolation in schools. 2) the lack of support they offer to inductee teachers or enthusiastic teachers returning to the classroom from summer schools. Time is seldom taken to help these "revved-up" teachers interpret their new ideas within the regular school setting toward enthusiastic input.

More than decision-making, more than evaluation, more than finding a strategy, the major task of the administration was seen to be that of feeding congeniality throughout the district. The administrator should thus be able to "get a group going", combining their own grasp of managerial and communication skills with their support of the collegial relationship.

Administrators who were able to work with core teachers in a school were seen to bring about many changes in schools. Core teachers were those who were vibrant, successful and highly dedicated to their teaching. Gradually, more reticent teachers would join this core group. Thus, resource teachers who developed within schools encouraged self-reliance and industry in their colleagues. Then, not only supervisors, but teachers were observed to be capable. During inservice, core class teachers would themselves model situations, causing expectations that every teacher should be a resource and example in some area.

Inservice activities had great impact in the schools when they were carried out as scheduled revision. That is, continuing education became a reality as administrative supervision evolved into cooperative supervision, then into school-centered teams of revision. Authority in planning was successively delegated to those schools who began to invite supervisors to meet their inservice needs, and in turn developed their own inservice resource teachers. Such inservice groups were small enough so that through alternation all the teachers in a school could monthly attend an inservice on their own school grounds. In many cases the coordinating administrator would have originally established an intimate relationship with each teacher, in their own class, then brought them together - and the small inservice group would evolve from there. This gradual "freeing-up" of the supervisory role, allowing more choice and heavier responsibility to the teachers, greatly enlivened the whole process.

> "The other good thing about calling in a supervisor to visit a confident teacher, is that resource teachers are then developed in the school...Working through 'good' teachers we showed the others that teachers can do it, not just supervisors...In inservice you find core people who are willing to do inservice. As a principal or consultant you work with these people to influence others and bring their ideas to the fore". ('J').

Administrators were viewed as being in a special position in that they had the opportunity to conceptualize district activities in a sustained way, and were capable of taking one step from the front lines. Certainly it was regarded as essential that administrators' presence in schools be seen and met regularly, without attendant fear or threatening authority. Yet the administrator could legitimately take the reflective stance without immediate classroom responsibilities infringing on such thoughtfulness. Administrators could thus be fed by scholarly research and apply the research toward improving the faulty school system at hand. Administrators have the opportunity then to stretch their mind, thus preventing parochialism that can rigidify a solitary locale.

> "We can be impatient about what's going on there, in schools, but arrogance causes us to forget our audience, who we're supposed to be working with ... Although there's the other idea we were talking about that theory stretches your mind so that you don't become too narrow, too parochial". (T).

Should an administrator directly assume the role of inservice teacher, they must be certain of their credentials in the subject they present. At the same time, the administrator's awareness of the difference between the pedagogic relationship and the managerial role is essential to the success of the inservice. This is true of course, even should the administration assume the teacher's role through surrogates such as consultants. Pedagogy in inservice was regarded as a purposeful, friendly engagement of the administrator with equals who are committed only to a different set of district responsibilities for the welfare of the same students to which he or she is also committed. Inservice teaching is thus a supra-administrative activity that doesn't ask the educational officer to naively ignore job-distinction but instead to revive their roots as a teacher.

Causes of poor leadership. Inservice presentations by some administrative staff have been comically described as acts perpetrated by a "monochrome chameleon". That is, teachers have felt lectured to as if by a scholar, who in fact may lack competency in presenting the inservice itself. By giving such a deficient presentation, the administrator may be verifying their own administrative position by managing budgetary concessions, but such pompous posturing fails to alert and inform teachers. As the provision of educational opportunity becomes a budgetary showcase the central purpose of inservice is neglected.

The difference between providing educational opportunity and facilitating one's own administrative role is made more distinct by the increasing level of education that teachers are generally aspiring to. As more teachers obtain their M.Ed. degree, their expectations of inservice provisions rise correspondingly. Principals are particularly under pressure in the vice of increasing management expectations on the one hand, and increasing specialization and professionalization of teachers on the other hand. Teacher associations with "strike clout" press for role clarification of principals - stating that one of "them" cannot be an effective representative of any teaching staff. A principal may also have experienced abominable principal training or suffered disembowellment from the school district central office. Yet, principals need to be "at home" in their school as well as provide distinctive leadership that admits their role is more significant than that of a telephone switchboard operator. The principal is called upon to transcend both managerial manipulation and the abdication of duties arising from false humility, to initiate inservice activities and shoulder resulting responsibilities.

If inservice activities are seen as an act of domination by teacher groups, or by district administration, then their educational value diminishes correspondingly. Such domination is likely to occur when inservice is organized primarily toward efficiency or salary concerns. The interviewees noted that there is an awful tendency to take shortcuts when an administration has conceived of a particular change that they believe is important to implement. While a teacher's practical reason necessitates their own deliberation then their acting in a process of education, both deliberation and action can be "short-cut" when they take place in the mind of the administrator. Inservice thus becomes a technical rationalization of a much larger, complex process, and teachers find themselves co-opted within an adminstration's frame of reference.

When teachers' tasks are merely those of clarifying others' directions, and their task therefore becomes largely technical, then teachers ask during inservice: "What is being asked of me to do with this material? How must I change my practise as it exists?" As expectations upon teachers' abilities are narrowed, teacher interest declines, and they no longer ask "How can I contribute to this, alter it, better it?" As their role is blanched of over-all purpose, an abroggation of the teacher's responsibility is invited. Missing is the trusting delegation of authority to teachers during inservice activities. For example, administration might ask "Can this group of teachers help develop a plan to resolve these issues that have posed a problem to the district?" If teachers are instead consistently asked to simply deliver someone else's mail, then such specialization trends will curdle both teachers' and administrators' roles in a severely specialized, fragmented bureaucracy.

A final criticism of administrative participation in inservice activities is that many of the administrators were never master teachers, therefore their ability to help other teachers, to bring recognition to their staff, to introduce inductees to the profession, and to build professionally is severely limited. Although an administrator may have become highly skilled in large-scale evaluation and management, they may well be incompetent or alienated as a teacher. Out of touch with their own class of students, not having lived daily with children for some time, an administrator may be afraid of demonstrations, or even be afraid of questions relevant to concrete teaching situations. By losing touch with their own teaching staff, an administrator becomes an ineffectual inservice teacher.

Educative Conscience - How Teachers at once Maintain Their Ideals and Address Concrete Problems

During the interviews the concept of teachers' conscience was referred to at many points. Propensities of such educative vision were described and its relevance to inservice teacher education activities was also considered.

Propensities of educative conscience. It was explained that many teachers found their first two or three years of teaching most arduous. Later, as the teachers' skills and resources consolidate, their daily responsibilities are more easily met. To many teachers, the challenge once presented to them in the classroom situation diminishes greatly after those first two or three years, and they seek other challenges outside the classroom. They build a house, or perhaps develop an additional business investment. In these cases the challenge in their life is not sustained within their own education and within their teaching. While the self-renewal of teachers has been considered within the interviews to be absolutely vital, it has been sensed that such renewal depends in large measure on the teacher's own conscientious focus of interest upon the education field. In this regard, teaching could be considered more as a calling than a skill to be developed - an educative conscience. That is, continuing self-renewal of a teacher depends on their commitment to the pedagogic life. The life-energies of a committed teacher are truly drawn to the lives of students to help them better understand the world.

> "Sacrifice is always there in teaching. But in inservice, that's time for us (as teachers) to develop...then we become students again". (A).

A teacher's general development depends on challenge, stimulation, newness - that is personal growth beyond "I'm o.k. - You're o.k." transactionalism. Conscientious teachers develop themselves by aiming to fulfill their potential. Such teachers push their own vision of what is possible beyond short-sighted definitions of knowledge, relevancy and practicality. A caveat within the text of the interviews is that teachers must guard against wearing rose-coloured glasses and thereby becoming so discouraged with school constraints that they drop out.

Rather, one works toward change by maintaining a vision of what should be, and then applying steadfast effort toward that goal.

All forms of education contain an element of idealism, for in the general field of education, no matter what the subject area, one is educated toward something. The moment we register for a course, we enter into a relationship imbued with hope - of greater or lesser degree. From the teacher's perspective, the attitude with which they meet their students can greatly effect the resolution of such hope. In the course of the interviews it was held that the development of an educative conscience in a teacher was only indirectly related to their knowledge in a subject specialty. Thus, pedagogic expertise may remain unimproved when a teacher obtains an M.Ed. in history, administration or curriculum etc. Although preparation of the learning environment is important, the interviews described the teacher's and the student's personal strengths as primarily determining the learning process.

> "There are always these kinds of practical realities: exams, practical teaching, school promotional policy, lunch duties, seven periods a day... it's just a very busy job. There are just so many things pressing on teachers. The ones that do manage to read and think and talk about the kinds of things they're interested in doing, in bringing about change... they have a lot of energy, a lot of

> energy. It is done in spite of everything else...A person with a Master's degree in history, that doesn't make them any more expert with children". (T).

The interviewees described a number of propensities that reveal a teacher's educative conscience. Initially, the teacher's volition enables them to engage in educative acts more than merely re-acting or re-adjusting to political or material circumstances. The teacher is no longer a puppet to such circumstances when their own pointed intentions cause changes to take place in the educational arena. In addition to a forceful will, educative conscience is composed of faith in others. The experienced teacher, being receptive to changing needs, decisively formulates educative circumstances commensurate with their students' capacity to shoulder responsibilities. Judgment, as the dynamic arm of educative conscience, seeks to encourage others' responsibility rather than self-seeking its own power through passivity.

> "The beginning teacher, right out of University, has got many creative ways in mind, but lacks the judgment, the right questions. One maintains one's ideals, I think, in a fairly simple way. On a daily basis one deals with what is: the reality of students in the classroom the reality of the curriculum, the reality of the school division, the reality of one's colleague's, the reality of the administrative set up - all of those things. But one never loses sight of what ought to be. That involves one's own personal statement of intentions; that involves personal reflection, one's personal philosophy of life". (G).

One works toward a better educational community by attending on a daily basis to what is: the reality of the school system. Yet by focusing singularly on what is, we ignore larger or longer-term goals. Still, by focusing singularly on what ought to be we tend to ignore small increments of success and become overly critical or hold dream-like expectations. The teacher whose judgment is based on a co-existing respect for what is and what ought to be is less likely to fall victim to narrow pragmatism or idealism.

The interviews clarified that a teacher's volition, faith, receptivity and judgment together reveal that teacher's educative conscience. At the same time they warned that such awareness can be clouded by opposing attitudes. Faith can be contradicted by despair which may be described as a non-belief in others' consistent strength of character. On the intellectual level, this despair exists as habitual cynicism that undercuts the trust which might develop between teacher and student. In addition, the teacher's volition is short-circuited by apathy or lack of assertiveness that may be closely related to personal insecurity. Then, receptivity stands in contrast to some teachers' inability to admit their own limitations. This inability leads them to equate fallibility with failure, so that they maintain a pretense of infallibility before students and sometimes before colleagues. Receptivity is also undermined by excessive self-pride on the teacher's part. Such pride tends to trivialize others' accomplishments in some manner. Judgment that is sensitive to the delicate balance between societal and individual rights is opposed by ignoring students' capacity to responsibly react to that balance.

> "I think the biggest problem, and I think we could avoid half the necessities of inservice if students in universities were taught about the important attitudes in teaching and in the classroom. They should be encouraged to cultivate such attitudes...moral attitudes...the human art of communicating to people". (F).

Educative conscience and inservice activities. It was noted in the interviews that a teacher's responsibiities are extensive: daily teaching, tests and exams, school promotional policy-making, lunch-duties, subject-speciality meetings, social, medical agency and parental contacts, as well as various committee responsibilities. Of course, it requires a deep pedagogic commitment and effort to accomplish all of these tasks well and at the same time educate oneself as a teacher. Self-sacrifice that the teacher is inevitably called upon to make contradicts learning for self edification, yet inservice teacher education undeniably affords a special opportunity for pedagogic self-development. During inservice education, the teacher must become a student, and the district administration then shoulders the teacher's position. In the context of this exchange of role, the satisfaction of a teacher's special educational interests is initially vital to the success of the inservice. In effect, the administration is called upon to give each teacher their responsible choice of activities. The teacher's personal interest in inservice offerings encourages them to absorb new ideas and further consolidate a meaningful educational philosophy. Successful inservice affords teachers the opportunity to expand their foundation of knowledge, to rationalize or defend their practices, and reconceive solutions to problems that have existed in their classrooms.

Before teachers are enjoined to participate in an inservice activity, the receptive instructor will inquire by what arrangements they've come to the activity. Are the teachers there due to bullying, a regularized procedure, or because of something they've sought? Thus the inservice instructor listens and analyzes the scene before moving in it. Their understanding and role as a teacher of teachers is given further dimension in light of the reasons why the inservice has been called. A valuable introductory statement to a group of teachers in inservice might be "I understand you're here because...?" Such a question indicates to the teachers involved that the instructor accepts who they are and suggests that he or she is willing to help them develop what they may offer.

Prior to, and during inservice activities, the inservice instructor must use their judgment to match their ideas with the teachers at hand. "What level should I aim for?" "What things are most appropriate to introduce now?" may be the instructor's concerns that demands insight as well as good timing. That is, the beginning teacher may have many creative approaches, but lack questioning ability or procedural knowledge. Such matching on the part of the instructor will facilitate teachers' understanding of themselves as people - not merely as more congenial people, but in understanding themselves better as they portray themselves in class.

Inservices that include demonstrations with actual student involvement stress that it is essential to realize one's educational philosophy in front of children. Through voice-tone, physical cues, and degree of student-responsibility shown during the demonstrations, the inservice participant can at once contrast what is said with how it's being said. While some demonstrations may be good examples, others provide motives for improving one's own teaching through their poor example. Especially poignant is seeing and feeling the suffering on the part of pupils that results from such teaching. Students bring fresh life to the interplay between ideal/concrete and play/work or enthusiasm/drill of learning. New ideas and methods bonded in a demonstration-teaching inservice can be easily associated to one's own practice and then conscientiously reflected upon to see if the comparison calls for change.

There are a number of ways in which the teacher's conscience has been ignored during inservice activities. For example, when inservice activities omit problems that actually exist in the district, opportunity for reflection upon the teacher's own surroundings is diminished. It is necessary to first admit the existence of a problem before the teacher can stop and objectify the surroundings and say "What is wrong with this equipment, this teaching style?" Then the teacher can stand back and interpret the realm of action reflectively. The fact that little time has been allowed for diagnosis of class-level difficulties also diminishes the fruitfulness of many inservices. On a different scale, the provision of sabbatical leaves for classroom teachers, possibly every five years, would enable reflective criticism during long-term inservice.

> "I think the entropy of the system is so pervasive in systematic education that teachers get turned off; and in order to shield themselves they sort of get into their own little world. They don't get involved with other teachers very much like they used to. It has nothing to do with the fact that they don't want to help, its just that the situation looks hopeless and it drags you down. So you harden yourself in a way - you still do your job, but not quite as effectively because there's that wall there - an emotional barrier". ('F').

Thus teachers harden themselves, forming emotional barriers between themselves and their students, parents, colleagues and administration. As their conscience becomes encysted, their school lives become regimented toward survival. It was felt that this problem might be somewhat offset by "jam-session" inservices wherein problems could be shared and staff would renew their sense of responsibility to the whole school milieu.

In the interviews it was also noted that inservice participants were seldom called upon to contrast right and wrong by making responsible choices, either in dialogue or in activities. Yet mutual responsibility between administration and teachers couldn't be developed during an inservice by using guilt as a lever. For example "Hurry and grasp this, for the childrens' sake". Receptivity on the part of the inservice teachers would rather depend on their mature responsibility, not emotional or material coercion. Nevertheless, such a strong commitment to inservice education has been noted to arise in part from teachers' desire to improve the daily lot of students as well as themselves. Initial rejection of school days filled with meaningless, repetitive tasks, then leads to the active quest for constructive, invigorating inservice.

Reinterpretation of Needs-Assessment

Needs-assessment was regarded in the text of the interviews from two main perspectives: 1) reflections on the structure of needs assessments in the interviewees' own inservice experience. 2) inservice needs-assessment and personal purpose.

Reflections on the structure of needs-assessment in inservice. A method of inservice needs-assessment that was regarded as broadly effective was "force-field analysis". This form of assessment took place when consultants, administrators and teachers met together in small groups to analyze the most positive and most negative ideas and circumstances to be addressed by inservice activity. After the greatest "pluses and minuses" were listed each group would have its own discussion to elucidate possible constructive courses of action. When all the small groups were next brought together, the overlapping courses of action were assumed to be of greatest priority. This method was found agreeable because it was known that actual changes would follow such needs-assessment, and great amounts of time weren't spent on justifying one's "pet need"; rather the best avenues of change were sought. "Force-field" needs-assessment was considered to build on consensus and success in small increments of action.

It was noted that cooperative evaluation, when teachers, principals and consultants focus on one school, may prescribe a needs-assessment toward inservice education. The interviewees however warned against bureaucratic prescriptions that equated professionalization with the teacher's technical expertise alone. This narrow conception of professionalization was felt to fragment and disperse the individual teacher's responsibilities throughout the various strata of the school system.

Generally, standardized needs-assessment sheets containing questions such as "Which of the following topics interest you? Answer: Very much. Some. Little" were considered ineffective, confusing and superficial. They were mistrusted in that they might provide very general district consensus of needs that betrayed actual inservice needs at the school level. The classroom teacher's sense of isolation, their feeling that no one is listening can be inflamed by shallow or non-existent needs-assessment. Inservice partnerships of some kind could replace such feelings of alienation. An alternative or addition to occasional visiting consultants could be school department heads who are not only subject specialists but have the time to be with teachers in their classes, and who are primarily interested in human development. They would be kindred souls as well as information experts.

> "I think the further you get away from the school and the community in which the school functions, whether it's the educational community or the social-cultural community, the broader the needs become and they become diluted". ('J').

If strictly budgetary rather than human concerns were represented in a needs-assessment, the interviewees felt educational disasters resulted. Some alternatives to such disasterous needs-assessments were shared. One change might be to de-emphasize the development of mountains of materials and look at everyday class decisions that deal with school troubles. What is at the root of these troubles may be illuminated by more attention to dialectic between teacher and student, teacher and principal as well as teacher and teacher. Further, it was observed that the self-fulfilling prophecy of meaningless inservices could be broken by ascertaining the personal relevancy of the inservice activities with all teachers. That is, it was felt that the teachers who are often most in need of re-vitalization through inservice don't attend through lack of personal relevancy in the inservice provided.

Interviewees described a more rewarding scenario for inservice activities. First, to facilitate full participation in inservice, an administrator would have a grasp of what teachers would like to talk about. Then, during visits to the schools, both teachers and administrators would share one another's concerns in light of the fact that the future would hold inservice opportunities to expand on these concerns. Preparation of a tentative inservice outline of activities could then be diffused among the schools for suggestions and possible revision. This would be followed by the preparation of an agenda, passed out well in advance.

Inservice needs-assessment and personal purpose. The interviews described how inservice needs were often emphasized in terms of the responsibilities shouldered by the teachers, principals, consultants or boards to be involved in an inservice. Of course these responsibilities are often quite different from one group to another, and furthermore the responsibilities are also perceived differently within groups. But "needs" are often defined in terms of outcomes (what is desired), and most often this sort of "need" takes on the appearance of a subjective completion. For example "More art funds are needed". But there is another dimension to "needs" when they are defined in terms of their active cause (the how and why something is desired). This sort of "need" takes the form of a verb. For example "We need more art supplies because we were greatly underfunded this year". That is, there is always an underlying purpose to a need. But stated as an outcome, the possibility of confusing community needs with individual desires exists. Agreement over needs depends on agreement at the level of values. That is "I agree that carrying on art activity is as valuable as sending the volleyball team to Indonesia for three days - let's buy more art materials immediately". Disagreement on the level of valued purpose provokes a necessary descrimination between desires and needs: "The sports needs in this school are a priority no matter what the desires of the art department may be". That is, sports activities are valued more highly than art in this case.

> "(Inservice leader) I think I asked myself the question "What is the best way to proceed? How would a phys-ed teacher, physics, math teacher approach this lesson?...So what do you provide? The facts, the generalizations, the value statements and the skills...The way to proceed develops in each teacher based on experience, on understanding, of the philosophy of prescription, and based on the content of the skills and values that may be apparent". (G).

The interviews described the essence of developing worthwhile inservice as putting oneself in another's place. That is, if we do not see the values that underly one another's needs, how can we grasp the use that an inservice activity might be put to? When, for example, teachers can agree with administrators about why they value an activity, then agreement on what they need to do in inservice to live up to those values follows naturally. Then, the underlying purposes of the activity are clear and the inservice can proceed with shared vitality and enthusiasm. So, inservice has been felt to succeed if it is not focused slavishly on a solution (a "need" whose underlying interests and purposes are undisclosed).

Identifying problems, reflecting upon problems, then mutually questioning their "fit" to a particular school has been regarded as a valuable set of activities for boards, administrators and teachers. Pre-conceived needs then evolve through responsible dialogue into actual needs that can be met. During group transactions, needs reach goals only haphazardly or through political coercion unless the underlying valued purpose of the individuals who make up the group are considered and respected.

valued purposes ------- needs -------- goal
(verb, how and why we desire) (subjective completion,
what we desire)

Logically, needs assessment must derive from clarification of the purposes of the individuals involved, because any group being assessed is a gathering of individuals, not a separate, conglomerate entity. Therefore, needs appear broader and more diluted as needs assessments generalize further from individuals, schools and actual community locales, in whose sight needs exist for various reasons. If an administration professes to know the needs of the district teachers or students without needs assessment that addresses their personal valued purposes, a structural encasement takes place. This is more insidious when it is expedited with the rationale that teachers must sacrifice their self-development for their students' sake. Because, only if the teacher is partaking in human development can they teach it to their students.

> "Human development is all about responsibility of both teacher and student. If teachers have it, they can teach it to their students... To know how to teach is a way of being in the classroom - that comes to communication. Once we know that, we

> know that we can't simply give recipes. All we can do is help those individuals explore as many avenues as possible. Give them opportunities, not necessarily recipes". ('A').

True educational goals can only be reached when the underlying interests and purposes of teacher and student alike are developed within an inservice activity. Perhaps the individual will not even know what the goal is, but their fresh interest will lead them in some direction. It is crucial that needs be allowed to alter through the expansion of personal interests. Of course all changes in the interest and goals of inservice participants are only relative until they are coordinated into the totality of educational services. That is, deciding to buy quantities of new music equipment but refusing to provide for a program of further teacher music education will accomplish little.

Naturally, teachers themselves bring very different sets of intentions to an inservice meeting. As has been described previously, inductee teachers, "minors" and those teachers with lengthy experience generally have widely varying needs. Not only do these three gross categories of teachers exist, but each teacher maintains their own way of being a teacher. Their specific needs exist simultaneously with district-wide, apparently immediate needs. Therefore inservice ought to develop as a continuing, general education and as shorter-term recipes for resource aid or procedural guidance. Inservice teacher education can become most fruitful, the interviews explained, when the teacher admits they don't know how to proceed. Then they could stop and reflect on the meaning of their failure to understand the task. Such valuable general, unprescribed learning is not given enough breathing room by the programming of inservice toward immediate need fulfilment. A full circle of needs and solutions is then instrumentally determined, ignoring the teacher's intentions. Teachers' overall orientation to inservice was felt by the interviewees to depend primarily on the manner in which teachers' needs were addressed.

> "The task of understanding only presents itself when you experience misunderstanding...I found the inservice had special meaning because we were trying to address a particular problem, a very practical problem. It was educative because it came out of needs that you are aware of, and can practically redress, and at the same time extend your understanding". (T).

CHAPTER 5

IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY FOR THE FIELD OF INSERVICE TEACHER EDUCATION

While Chapter Four described the dominant themes that arose in the interviews, the chapter at hand will be composed of four main parts: 1) The Author's Viewpoint on How Inservice Education is Made Worthwhile. Wherein, the author will seek to explain the personal viewpoint he has formed because of this research. 2) Essential Procedures in Making Inservice Worthwhile. That is, essential inservice procedures developed from the author's research will be described. Thirdly, 3) Conclusions will aim to succinctly and consumately describe the study findings. 4) A description of the author's Reflections on the Research Process. This section will reflect upon the research process itself with respect to its methodological characteristics and its impact on the author's self-perception.

The Author's Viewpoint on How Inservice Education is Made Worthwhile

The particular findings of the interviews will be sketched, as they have played a major role in the formation of the author's viewpoint on inservice. The interview themes were different from the research literature in a number of ways. In looking at why inservices have not succeeded, the attitudes of teachers were dealt with at length in the interviews, while only being touched upon in the literature. Disengagement from the spirit of inquiry, lack of enthusiasm, alienation and inconsistency of commitment were high-lighted in the interviews.

In looking at broad conceptions of inservice, the interviews clearly highlighted the foundation of worthwhile inservice and the literature gave models. The foundation was attributed to inservice participants' devotion to the relationship between teacher and student. Very high priority was given to inservice that evidenced care for children. Pre-determined imposition of theory was considered secondary to the degree of this commitment.

Regarding collegiality, the interviews contributed perspectives to the literature: some ways to actualize administrative support; the prime need of the inductee, that is to know how to proceed; the distinction between collegiality and administration.

Related to the administrator's special role of leadership during inservice, the interviews made the point that a strict distinction should be made between an administrator's commitment to teacher education and their evaluative role. That is, that administrators should clearly distinguish between their support activities of helping teachers overcome faults, and their judgments on ethical and competency standards.

The interviews contained four related sets of ideas about educative conscience, not fully described in the literature: the relationship of challenge to self-renewal; the qualities of educative conscience; attitudes that oppose educative conscience; and the importance of teachers' example.

In asking for the reinterpretation of needs-assessment, the interviews attributed a substantially divergent meaning to the term "needs-assessment". Needs were seen not as a subjective completion, but as verbs. That is, the identification of teachers' underlying valued purposes was thought of as essential in understanding their needs. Needs were explained as diluted and less true as they become generalized away from individuals, schools and single communities, in whose sight needs exist for particular reasons.

Altogether, these major interview findings have again and again caused the researcher's viewpoint to focus upon attitudes of civility during inservice teacher education. In essence, the author has arrived at the viewpoint that the practise of human civility is how inservice is made worthwhile. The interviewees pointed to such civility as they noted that poor attitudes such as lack of enthusiasm, alienation, and inconsistency of commitment undermined many inservice efforts. Also a form of civility was seen to build the foundation of worthy inservice. That is, the participants' devotion to sustaining the teacher-student relationship appeared essential. Further, our inner awareness of civility through maintenance of personal conscience and careful assessment of others' needs was considered indispensable. In addition, one's outer expression of civility was regarded as vital in both leadership and collegiality.

Yet, inservice participants may too easily ignore attitudes of civility. The misconception that attitudes are constituted in a dream-world of floating, undefined abstraction isn't easy to dispel. Perhaps this is because attitudes are usually invisible--they are found either in intonation of voice and choice of phrase and gesture, or they are generalized ideals that we live by. So, our attitudes defy comprehensive definition as they take form only in concrete, day to day circumstances while we express ourselves. Nevertheless we all recognize that how we say and do things is as important as what we say and do. We could each make our own list of civil attitudes we live by which might contribute to the worth of inservice: kindness, courage, tolerance, dignity, trustworthiness, generosity, forgiveness, humility...But civil attitudes cannot be adequately educed through mime, so it is essential that procedures of civility be respectfully maintained during inservice.

Essential Procedures in Making Inservice Worthwhile

The prime discovery of the thesis at hand has been described as the realization that the practise of human civility makes inservice teacher education worthwhile. So that the study doesn't stop short at simply listing civil attitudes that may ideally be brought to inservice activities, further identification of procedures of civility will now follow.

Procedures of Civility in Inservice

Just as there are special procedures of human civility for classroom teaching, family life, or sports teams - inservice teacher education has unique procedures of civility too. The interview findings are rich in details of such activities that make inservice worthwhile. These procedures will be depicted in diagram A below, in two related sets. The first set will be termed personal civility, which is followed by organizational civility. This distinction is simply based on the focus of group interaction necessary to activities of leadership and collegiality in contrast with the individual focus of needs assessment and personal conscience.

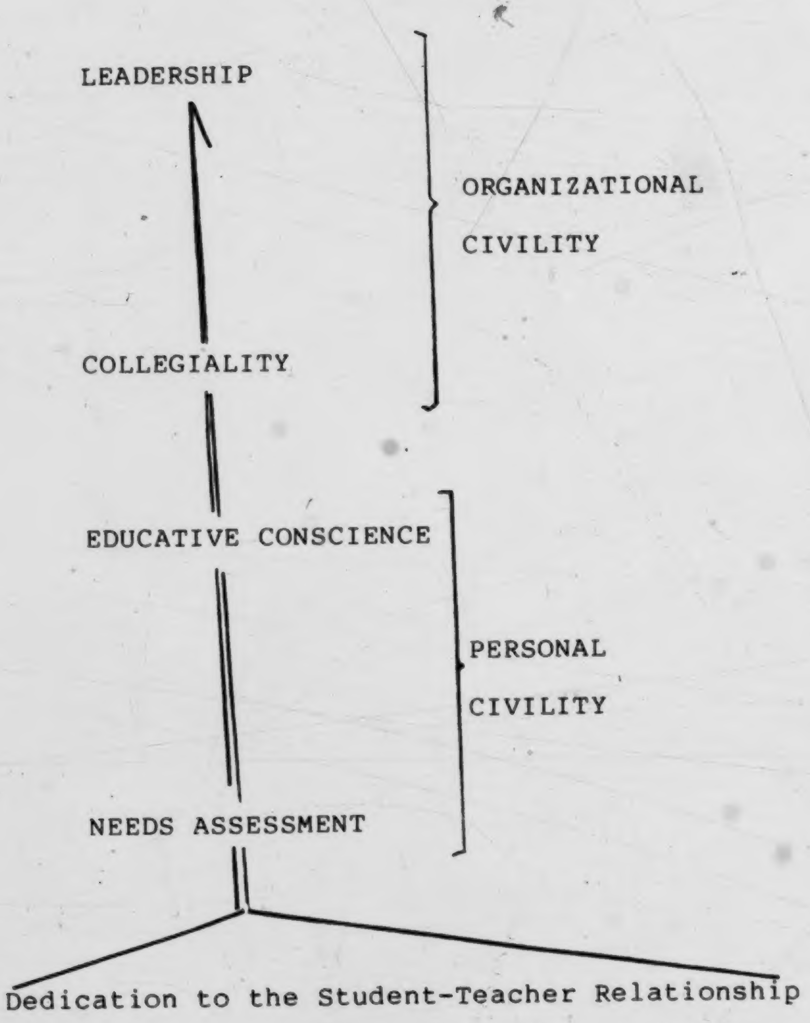

Diagram A. Procedures of Civility in Inservice Teacher Education

The 'arrows' in the model above suggest a progression of procedures from the personal to the organizational level. It follows that no one would expect a very fine form of leadership without, for example, dedication to the student-teacher relationship. Yet, these procedures of civility are acknowledged to be interrelated and varying in their correspondence, in the concrete world. Nevertheless, it can be said that neither personal nor organizational civility can truly progress disjointedly.

Procedures of personal civility. The foundation of any worthwhile inservice activity has been explained in the research as being the participants' general dedication to the student-teacher relationship. This foundation of dedication may not materialize in empirical form during the course of the inservice; but it has been described as being the undergirding of 'respect', 'love', 'service', and 'dynamic care' toward pedagogy that must exist within each teacher before a worthwhile inservice can proceed.

Civility in **inservice needs assessment** calls for three considerations. That is, 1) differentiation should be made between the needs of each teacher, as to whether they are an inductee teacher, a 'minor' in a particular subject, or a specialist with rich experience. Also, 2) needs should be construed on both a long term and a short term basis so that both the continuing, unprescribed general education needs of teachers and their immediate, resource-aid requirements can be respectively addressed. Then, 3) inservice needs should be re-conceived from an emphasis on the administration's aim to reach desired outcomes. Instead, teachers' and district needs can be constructively sought in terms of their cause, which is made clear in the dual description of each participant's past desires and their future purposes.

Such civil procedures might well take place in a series of inservice preparations such as preparatory visits at the school level, the preparation of a tentative inservice schedule, followed by revision of this schedule by each participating school, and then the distribution of a clear agenda of inservice activities well in advance of the actual date. Such preparation can address the wide range of educators' needs: to expand their knowledge foundation; to defend or rationalize their practise; or to solve actual school problems.

Clearly, civil procedures of needs assessment require that participants put themselves in one another's place. Otherwise a vicious circle may form either through administrative prescription of short-term inservice recipes or through capricious endeavours that some teachers might make, without a pedagogic commitment.

Educative conscience is the second development of personal civility. Educative conscience can be understood with regard to the student-teacher relationship; but more appropriate to inservice, it will be examined with regard to the administrator-teacher relationship. It has been noted before that during inservice the administration takes on the role of teacher while each teacher involved assumes the role of the student. Of course, oftentimes the inservice instructor-role is filled by a surrogate for the administrator - perhaps a district teaching specialist. As we concern ourselves mainly with inservice procedures at present, the 'administrator-as-teacher' during inservice will be referred to as 'the instructor' below.

The instructor can demonstrate the existence of their educative conscience through: 1) Volition - the instructor's willingness to be engaged in educational activity can be contrasted with mere reaction to circumstances at hand. Volition is filled with challenge and newness, and the desire for educational progress, but is not to be confused with wearing rose-coloured glasses. 2) Also, the instructor sustains faith. That is, they trust that their own and others' intentions will meet with a good measure of constructive results. 3) Receptivity - is a quiet activity through which the instructor listens and sees the changing needs of the inservice participants. 4) Judgment. Informed by the first three inner aspects of personal civility, the instructor then formulates educative circumstances commensurate with participants' capacity to shoulder responsibility. The instructor's educative conscience doesn't self-seek power through others' passivity but instead encourages their self-reliance.

The interviews repeatedly pointed out how important it is for an instructor to realize their educational philosophy before their class. The procedures of educative conscience described above delineate how this important realization can be renewed. On the other hand, instructors' awareness can be clouded by opposing tendencies. Volition is opposed by apathy or lack of assertiveness, as well as personal insecurity. Faith is contradicted by despair, a disbelief in others' strength of commitment. Intellectual cynicism also undercuts trusting faith. Receptivity can be replaced by one's prideful inability to admit their limitations, and by equating fallibility with failure. If an instructor maintains a pretense of infallibility, they often trivialize inservice accomplishments. Judgment is opposed by ignorance of inservice participants' capacity to responsibly make decisions.

Procedures of organizational civility. The research at hand has discovered collegiality and leadership to be aspects of organizational civility.

Collegiality can be extended into inservice practises in five ways: 1) The place where the inservice is held ought to be given special consideration. Classroom observations of demonstrations and the sharing of ideas outside the school setting in a special center are the two most highly regarded places for inservice to take place.

2) The crucial nature of the induction year has serious implications for collegiality. For example, the neophyte teacher would benefit by being forewarned of the necessity to retain their educational ideals and creativity

through the intense demands for skill development in their first few years. Also, fellow teachers can help prevent the inductee's tunnel-vision and fear by admitting that teachers must often learn from their mistakes. Monthly forums of first-year teachers could meet to discuss demonstrations and mutual problems. A long-term internship offers many opportunities for learning that an inductee cannot obtain in the comparative isolation of their own class.

3) Inservice is improved when participants realize that collegial evolution is a natural part of inservice education. That is, the new teachers will need to improve their judgment of how to proceed in class, then later they will require an expanded vocabulary of ideas and skills, and lastly seek to cultivate creative teaching. Collegiality among master-teachers and beginners improves when their expectations of one another during inservice evolve with such an understanding.

4) Another aspect of the civil procedures of collegialty is the balance that should be made in inservice activities between the formation of an organized agenda and sensitivity to teachers' needs for social engagement. That is, pragmatic communication of ways teachers have succeeded needs to be balanced with time to reach consensus along with provision for individual interest to be kindled and challenged.

5) Lastly, collegiality must be distinguished

from administrative requirements so that false collegiality doesn't consume inservice time, i.e. hours spent by the whole staff to decide the type of copy machine to purchase.

Leadership. This second aspect of organizational civility can be seen to constructively affect inservice in four ways. 1) An insightful leader would differentiate roles so that their managerial role of evaluator is understood to be different from their pedagogic role of master teacher. Reporting of ethical or competency standards ought not to be confused with teacher education.

2) Another civil procedure of leadership is to feed congeniality. Teachers often lack coherence of community as their increasingly specialized roles fragment collegial ties. To feed congeniality, the leader must be willing to act as a pivotal bridge between teachers, principals, administration, parents and students. Encouraging their friendly, purposeful engagement, is an activity that is in part planned and in part conceived in the immediate inservice arena.

3) Thirdly, leadership imbued with civility will organize the cooperative development of inservice. That is, leaders will contact trusted, inspired teachers in each school, coordinate particular inservice activities with them and the school principals, and finally delegate authority for inservice development to responsible groups

of teachers.

4) Leaders can integrate the worlds of scholarship and practise by sustained conceptualization of district problems. By both remaining in contact with current educational thinking and classroom activities, the leader at once denies parochialism and enlivens their roots as a teacher.

In summary, it can be seen that organizational civility appears to demand a more complex set of procedures than does personal civility. Yet there can be no doubt that educative conscience, needs assessment, collegiality and leadership are deeply interconnected. That is to say, it is evident that all of the above procedures are interdependent in that, for example, needs grouping cannot occur without reference to the place of the inservice.

Conclusions

The research at hand points to the practise of human civility as the major cause of worthwhile inservice teacher education. A summary description of these procedures now follows that includes personal civility and organizational civility.

A Summary of procedures of civility. Personal civility has been seen to include needs assessment procedures of 1) needs grouping according to experience and expertise. 2) accounting for short and long term needs and 3) reconception of needs to include past interests and future purposes. In addition, personal civility during inservice is enlivened by participants' educative conscience of 1) volition 2) faith 3) receptivity and 4) judgment.

At the same time, organizational civility has been understood to result from collegiality with regard to 1) place of the inservice 2) induction year practises 3) recognition of collegial evolution 4) balance between an organized agenda and social contact 5) identification of false collegiality. Organizational civility also develops through leadership which 1) differentiates the role of manager from that of pedagogue 2) feeds congeniality 3) initiates cooperative planning and implementation of inservice and 4) sustains conceptualization of district problems.

Given these findings, where do procedures of civility meet the historical undercurrents of inservice teacher education? Also, how do the research findings at hand redress the major determinants of inservice failure?

Civility and the history of inservice. Holly and Blackman (1983, p. 1) understand that there have been two main currents of thought that have infused inservice efforts: 1) a developmental model, revealed in the drift towards continuing teacher education which supports ongoing professional development and 2) a deficit model, revealed in efforts to evaluate teachers' ethical and academic competency. These two currents may very well stem from the two traditions of teacher education itself: 1) the professional tradition that nurtures general education as well as educational principles of learning and 2) the academic tradition of subject specialization (Cushman, 1977, p. 36).

In comparing past and present school circumstances that directly bear on inservice practices, we see more similarities than differences. Commonly, economic uncertainty and stress has existed, as have heavy class responsibilities of teachers, the complex nature of teaching, the isolation of the teacher's work world, and the constant change of curriculum. Teacher preparation standards were less uniform in the past, and certainly stronger teacher organizations now hold continuing education expectations.

However, Hansot and Tyack (1982) note that three eras of policy-making have existed in America. The nature of these three eras sheds some light on the comparative strengths of both the deficit model and the developmental model of inservice over the last 100 years. Hansot and Tyack inform us that first the common school movement of the mid 1800's enabled the public to share a providential concept of American destiny. Citizenry became mobilized to support public education. Secondly, in the early 1900's, "experts" were called upon to make policy decisions as bureaucracies took the lead of social evolution. Thirdly, more recently, closed-system governance has become fragmented, and the promise of the common school is being seriously questioned. School governance was led during these three eras first by reformers such as Horace Mann, who had wide-ranging careers; then by career educators, akin to professional business managers - such as Edward Thorndike and Franklin Bobbitt; thirdly by the fragmented lobbying of various federal and state groups, academic revisionists and minority interest groups.

As these three forms of policy-making increase and recede we may better understand the historical differences in inservice teacher education. The functions of the Teacher Institutes of the late 1800's, formed to up-grade common-school teachers' proficiency were accepted as further providence. Then, the vigorous inservice growth brought about in the early 1900's in the formation of normal schools, summer schools, class supervision, evening extension courses, correspondence courses, and teachers' collegial reading circles were largely due to the work of professional career educators. More recently, inservice has waned as behavioural management and large-scale curriculum programming have proliferated, echoing to some extent the fragmented nature of policy-making.

The common school movement can readily be understood as focused upon a deficit model of inservice as the need for upgrading of teacher education was generally acknowledged. The expert policies of the early 1900's are seen to be part of a drive that included both continuing and deficit models, sometimes emphasizing one over the other. The fragmented policies of the more recent decades can be grasped as largely a deficit model, with various interest groups pointing out this missing quality or that unaccounted-for discipline.

The author is in accord with Edelfelt (1981) that two critical factors essential for making inservice progress in the mid 1980's are: 1) the degree to which teaching becomes a profession that itself governs inservice, encouraging continuing education, 2) the degree personal improvement is meshed with school improvement. That is, the degree that personal and organizational goals are integrated is vital.

Inservice teacher education can be more than after-the-fact bandaging of incompetence, as has been proven in the vigorous inservice practises of the early 1900's. But in our present era of policy-making that is relatively fragmented by various interest groups, practises of human civility hold promise for meshing personal and organizational goals. The study findings ask educators to look within themselves, listen to others and take definite steps to develop a consensus of needs through personal civility. At the same time, organizational realities are admitted, and carefully reviewed according to place, time and educational leadership through organizational civility.

Redressing inservice failure. The five major reasons that inservices have not succeeded have been described in Chapter Two as: 1) oversimplification of the inservice process 2) existing social ambiguities of the school milieu 3) galvanizing teachers' commitment can be difficult 4) universities exert normative influence 5) evaluation practises are usually weak or absent during inservice teacher education. The research at hand may redress each cause of inservice failure, in the following ways.

Oversimplification of the inservice process may take many forms, such as superficial needs assessment, lack of evaluation procedures or demands that whole staffs be treated to the same battery of inservicing. The fact that the research at hand has discovered sixteen different procedures of civility disclaims simplistic inservice processes that nevertheless seek to address teachers, administrators and ministry curriculum. Because both personal and organizational aspects of inservice exist, simple processes are further understood to fall short. Rather than oversimplify inservice, careful attention to the place that it occurs might make the necessary complexity of inservice processes less obtrusive. That is, a consistent meeting place could provide central resources, fewer support staff, and detachment from the intense cross-currents of other schooling activities.

The social ambiguity at the school level can be seen as an intricate matrix of roles, responsibilities and expectations among staff-members, parents, students, and administration. Setting the place of the inservice in the classroom or in a teacher center would establish the tenor of the activity and clarify roles through demonstrations, observations and other clearly collegial groupings. Further, social ambiguity would undermine inservice less if a good foundation of internship was organized. Time would then be increased for each teacher to prepare for myriad responsibilities and roles in a supportive atmosphere. In addition, leadership would reduce social ambiguity in inservice through increased congeniality, cooperative inservice development, and clear conceptualization of mutual and individual problems.

The fact that galvanizing teachers' commitment to inservice teacher education can be very difficult is addressed by personal civility procedures. If teachers' individual needs are sought, and inservice activities gauged to each person's experience and expertise, fuller participation could be expected. Educative conscience, if exemplified by a core of committed teachers would be contagious to teachers around them. Such inspiration would be especially likely if inservice resource personnel were encouraged to demonstrate their judgment, receptivity, faith and volition through developing inservice activities.

The normative press of university accreditation affects the timing and quality of inservice, as does university research isolationism. School-district cynicism often results from these pressures. The use of a 'middle-ground' inservice meeting place such as a district resource center to offer credit and non-credit courses could help relieve such pressures. Also, if principals in particular, as well as other school staff would demonstrate educational leadership in tying theory and practise, isolated research would appear less and less viable. That is, if school district leaders practised sustained conceptualilzation of district problems, they would demonstrate their academic equality and rise above university charges of parochialism.

This study's findings could be related to the lack of evaluation in inservice in three ways. First, if needs assessment were to be reconceived to compare inservice participants' interests and purposes with their goals and the goals of the district, formative evaluation would be thus initiated. By comparing long-term and short-term needs, evaluation is again called for at both planning and implementation stages of inservice. Evaluation would also be stimulated by leadership activities that differentiate between management and teaching, because the classification and clarification of roles would demand that qualities and standards in each role be established. Of course, the thoughtful exercise of judgment on the part of inservice organizers would stress self-evaluation amongst participants, as their level of achievement and responsibiiity would be matched to the type of inservice activity. That is, each participant should be able to note their progress throughout an appropriate activity.

Finally, inservice failure results from more than a deficit in a teacher's skill or weakness in a school organization's structure. Piece-meal inservice teacher education will always occur unless our committed attitudes of civility undergird inservice procedures and replace alienated partisan endeavours. Nevertheless, if inservice leaders are to succeed in making teacher education a truly continuing activity, their resourcefulness will have to match the penalities of leadership (Rugg, 1952, p. 3). That is, the culture-molding role of the inservice change agent calls for both sensitive creativity and demanding responsibility.

> Our hope is too new and too old -
> I do not know what would remain to us
> Were love not transfigured power.
> And power not straying love.
>
> Do not protest: "Let love alone rule!"
> Can you prove it true?
> But resolve: Every morning
> I shall concern myself anew about the
> boundary
> Between the love-deed-Yes and the power-deed-No

And pressing forward honour reality.

We cannot avoid
Using power.
Cannot escape the compulsion
To afflict the world,
So let us, cautious in diction
And mighty in contradiction,
Love powerfully.
(Buber, 1967, p. 45)

Reflections Upon The Research Process

The author will now reflect upon the research process itself. Both the methodology of the research and the impact of the research process on the author's self-perception will be considered.

Methodology. The value of the interview method has been explained in detail in Chapter One. Yet the particular interviews that the author carried out for this research had some unique qualities. The researcher was very sensitive to the fact that the interviewees' time was valuable. Every effort was made to carry on the interviews during the most suitable time frame and most appropriate place for the interviewees. In some cases, this meant that the interviews occurred in the participant's office, or in the researcher's office, or in a quiet lounge.

Three other aspects of the author's methods might be worth noting by others who are considering interview techniques. First, I carried on some of the interviews while making clay objects. Both the author and the interviewees found that kneading and shaping the clay was an excellent way to relax and yet focus our conversation powerfully on the topic of inservice.

Also, the author made transcriptions from the tape recordings almost immediately after each interview. This was dually helpful because the transcription helped the author consolidate his thinking about inservice in preparation for the next interview, and cut this heavy task into smaller workloads.

Another helpful interview technique existed in making aural cues for the tape-recorder during the actual interviews. In other words, when an important or impressive idea arose as the interview was actually being recorded, the author would repeat the idea or state "That seems vital" or clear his throat. Then, during the transcription process that followed some conceptual highlights were readily noted.

There is very little that the researcher would change about the research methodology. Certainly, choosing highly respected colleagues to interview is an excellent procedure because mutual trust and respect is thus already established. A minor improvement could have been introduced in making the second order validation. When the author presented the interviewees with his written summary of their interview contributions, it might have been better to ask for two reactions - one immediate and oral, and the other delayed and written. It is possible that more detailed comments could thus have been gleaned, over-and-above the one method of oral collection of interviewee reactions.

The Research Process and the Author's Self-Perception. The impact that the study has had on the author's self-perception will now be examined in terms of 1) the impact of the research on the author's evolving conception of "inservice teacher education", 2) the impact of the study on the author's philosophy of personalism.

Impact on the author's conception of inservice. As I became involved with the interviews, I found myself silently comparing my own inservice experiences to the inservice activities and ideas of the interviewees. This helped me to define the meaning of inservice, especially in broadening that definition to include a wide range of practises such as cooperative supervision and curriculum development. I also began to re-live my inservice experiences in more and more detail as another response to the research dialogues.

By re-living my own previous inservice life, the content of each inservice activity -- whether it was Arts Council committee meetings, editing a district newspaper, organizing Festivals, class exchanges...such endeavours began to seem worthwhile because of constructive attitudes on the part of the inservice organizers. I realized my good fortune in having such a depth of positive inservice experiences to draw understanding from.

Another result of re-living my previous inservice life was the strengthening of my conviction that "non-credit" experiences gained in the school milieu were every bit as valuable as any credit level study. The degree and variety of direct personal contact with students, colleagues, administrators and parents now seem invaluable in inservice.

The study also helped me to evolve my concept of inservice by linking research literature theory with concrete inservice experiences. This linking was achieved through a back-and-forth comparison of recurring highlights and needs that had happened in the field and were also expressed in the interviews. Ongoing dialogue verified where the two arenas overlapped.

My progress in thinking about inservice was further strengthened by the continuing inquiry of the research. Week after week, interviews riveted my attention on this or that facet of inservice. Before long, the consistent ongoing nature of the research enabled me to gain an increasingly coherent view of inservice, over and above a mere fragmented analysis.

Having drawn the thesis together to the point of identifying themes and stating general conclusions, I believe an absolutely essential step in evolving my concept of worthwhile inservice was allowing for a 'fallow period' to assimilate the meaning of the research I had done. That is, I required a time of about four months to take five or six steps back from the intense research, and to put my attention on other matters. Then I could see beyond the thematic analysis of the interview findings, to grasp the stance that I'd actually developed through the research effort. It was by distancing myself from the themes that the concept of civility occurred to me. As I worked on an article about courtesy in the classroom for The Canadian School Executive, I suddenly grasped that the concept of civility was the central viewpoint that I'd developed during the thesis research. Once I'd grasped this concept, I could interpret the research findings with an enthusiasm and vigour unavailable without a period of quiescence.

Impact on the author's philosophy of personalism. As described at length in Appendix two, the author's personalist philosophy could be outlined in four general themes, as it applies to education: 1) the human process of give and take is as important as the product of exchanged knowledge 2) inner motivation can be integrated with outer effort through purposeful decision 3) general education should be provided as well as specialized knowledge 4) dialogue contributes to social responsibility.

1) Regarding the importance of the process of give and take in education, the research expanded my understanding considerably. I realized that the process of education isn't simply an eternal motion machine, but that individual initiatives of leadership are essential.

Congeniality, cooperative development, and sustained conceptualization of problems are all necessary leadership activities that 'prime' further educational processes.

Also, the research informed me of the importance of identifying a time-line and structure in the inservice process. That is, past interests and experience along with future purposes can be integrated if they are clarified in the present process of education. The research information on needs assessment explained the necessity of comparing the plans each stakeholder values if we are to engage in a truly cooperative process.

Then, the research pointed out that the inservice process is an amalgam of both sociological and philosophical concerns. Inservice was seen to be a time for teachers to break their philosophical encystment, to become students. That is, inservice became understood to be a time of opportunity for teachers. At the same time inservice provides an opportunity for teachers to revive their dedication and sense of sacrifice to their students, as they themselves once again become students. Thus, the author better understood the process as a self-renewing activity.

2) In relation to inner motivation and outer effort being integrated by one's purposeful decision, the research findings on educative conscience were enlightening. The four elements of educative conscience were noted from various interview sources and appear

together to be greater than the sum of their parts. Volition and faith appear to work one with the other as the "in-breath" of motivation. Receptivity and judgment, on the other hand, appear as an "out-breath" of effort. That is, it takes as much effort to listen as it does to express oneself, and one informs the other. Educative conscience, understood as the in and out breaths of motivation and effort, is a fusion of civil attitudes and civil procedures.

My understanding of purpose, motivation and effort was further added to during the research in considering the reconception of needs-assessment. I realized that both at the personal and the organizational level, our valued purposes must be disclosed if our needs appear to clash or compete. If we refuse to compare our valued purposes, then short-cut, authoritarian decisions are enacted, based on an elite's hidden agenda.

3) The research expanded my comprehension of the relationship between general and specialized education. I began to see each of the two forms as part of a continuum. This was clarified in the ideas on the progressive development of teachers' needs from judgment to skills to creativity; as well as in the evolution of collegial relationships from master-student to experienced sharing. The co-existence of short-term curriculum inservice needs and long-term staff organization needs also informed the concept of a continuum of special and general knowledge.

An additional perspective of a continuum of specialized and general knowledge was grasped when considering the changing status of teachers, administrators, and university scholars. That is, as more and more teachers obtain masters and doctoral degrees and as more administrators involve themselves in scholarships, and as more university scholars engage in field-focused studies - both general and special forms of knowledge become respectable, and equally important. A scholar in the field must demonstrate common sense and a broad base of experiential knowledge or they remain "strangers" or temporary clinical intruders. Similarly, administrators begin to relate to highly specialized, accredited staff with more respect. And administrators must prove their pedagogic concerns are of a general nature, not merely managerial, or their places within teacher associations are threatened.

4) The research also increased my understanding of the positive affect that dialogue can have on social responsibility. A form of technical dialogue was exemplified by the administrative leader who would carefully identify their role specific to the activity at hand, as to its managerial or educative focus. Setting the stage for genuine dialogue, I thus understood, could be achieved by clear technical dialogue. Another example of how technical dialogue could prepare the stage for genuine dialogue was cited as the inservice instructor's initial

responsibility to discover inservice participants' reasons for attending the activity.

Also, I better understood genuine dialogue to flower in a supportive atmosphere. Conversations aren't made by ethereal, detached minds, but supported by special places, times and enabling dialogue. So internship in the induction year, teacher centers, and thoughtful forms of grouping all go a long way to enable genuine dialogue. The importance of a balance between an organized inservice agenda and time for socializing underlined this connection.

Lastly, the research finding that educators should develop inservice activities cooperatively pointed to the fact that social responsibility cannot be limited to one interest group. Organizational bridging of different interest groups such as teachers and administrators is thus an essential aim of dialogue.

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APPENDIX ONE

TRANSCRIPTION OF THREE INTERVIEWS WITH 'J'.

Interview #1. R. I'd like to ask a very general question to start out with Jan. That is, "What to you, as you look back on your various educational experiences, have been your most worthwhile inservice experiences?"

J. Inservice experiences...(pause) I guess the first inservice experience that I had a small part in was in North York when I was teaching and I taught a portion of it. That was an important portion, although I didn't realize it, because at the time they were looking for another supervisor and I had training from summer sessions with the Department of Education. I suppose you could call that inservice, the summer sessions - courses like we offer here.

R. When I speak of inservice, I think of teachers already involved in teaching.

J. The one I taught on, the first one because I had a part in it, because of the way I coped with the teachers and taught my material - was the first I remember in my field of physical education that was so vital to me. It started me on my way to supervision. But the training courses after teachers' college that the Department of Education had, in Ontario, were run every summer. These were the days of the baby boom and the tremendous need for teachers and of course we came out of "fifth form" into one year of teachers' college work. And then everybody went on, got degrees, extramurally, and did summer courses in specific areas of the curriculum. They chose what they wanted to do, and I took the summer sessions in physical education. Is that inservice?

R. I think it is, those are working teachers we're talking about.

J. They surpassed those in the training colleges because they were people who had just come out of school for the five weeks to teach. So they taught with a close connection to children and I guess the most impressive experience would be the third year I was there and the organizer came from England, Lancastershire; and for the first time we had someone who made us work harder than anyone had before, and told us least. In other words, it was the beginning of the problem-solving method in physical education. It was the beginning of someone teaching us without a whistle, it was the beginning of someone talking to us in a gym the way you talk to someone in a class; it was the beginning of observational techniques, of students who had ideas instead of the teacher who had all the ideas; it was the beginning of realizing that there are variations of ways of doing things that are acceptable. I feel that in retrospect, we had a lot of understanding to do at the time, during the nine lessons.

R. Do you recall being rebellious?

J. Not at all, it met me entirely; I guess that's why I'm still in this business - because of the change.

R. In the desert, someone offered you water.

J. I went, not long after that, into supervision. The deadlines, the rigidity, the boredom and rigidity in classrooms that I found was just...

R. When you were doing this "supervision" Jan; was this during the induction of new teachers?

J. No, no, this was ongoing, all year round. In those days we were on cycles. You went into certain schools so many times, on a regular cycle. It was all patterned and set down. That gradually broke over the years, to the point where you were invited to come in and look, on the invitation of teachers and schools; and where we set up co-operative supervision ideas in conjunction with so many schools a year, with teams of supply teachers that we used. With the teachers we set up how we were going to use the number of visits we had in the school.

R. What kind of "cooperative ventures" were involved with this? What held educational value?

J. That whole process was very educational because there was a marvelous group of professionals and supervisors in North York. It was a growing scene at the time.

They were testing out ideas, so the gradual freeing up of the supervisory role and allowing the choice of teachers regarding who they wanted and when they wanted to come in was very interesting to live through. In the early days we were on cycles - you went in and saw everybody: the inductions were done, then you saw your new teachers, then you made your rounds of all teachers. Principals set up a schedule for you. Then you left empty space on your schedule. You were to leave at least one or two periods of empty space where people who weren't on the schedule could ask to be put on..."Jan's coming, could I have her?" And then the next stage was between the supervisor, staff and the principal organizing ten pilot schools who wanted in-depth work. That was called co-operative supervision. You were given so much money for supply teachers and with the principal and staff you arranged how many visits that would be and what you wanted to cover. I thought it was marvelous.

R. Approximately how many days was that money equal to, in teacher time?

J. Well, we were into a school at least four times annually. Four times, a half-day each time. And we would free-up the group of teachers equal to the number of supply-teachers we had. The teachers would decide whether we talked and planned and went over programmes, used a class for demonstration or went in the gym.

They had to decide the way it went. Now after the first one or two we could plan others off that. Every time I went in there was a class ready for the gym, if we wanted to use it.

R. They were carrying a lot of responsibility.

J. They had to.

R. In our professional development days we used to wish we had a little bit of time to talk with one another. Half a day to see my neighbor, to see how she taught...

J. North York was marvelous then. (pause) The other inservice that was really super was an outgrowth of those summer sessions. It was at the time when large climbing apparatus were beginning to be in the schools. In that instance when we got the pilot piece in one of the public schools (Dublin public school, gorgeous) I was free to go in regularly to those people. I went in once a week to those teachers, during school hours, and worked with the staff, sometimes individually with each class as they came in, and sometimes with groups of teachers. But the idea there was that the equipment was an excuse to change the whole philosophy of teaching. Teachers didn't know what to do with it, so they would stand back and watch the children, which is the start of the kind of teaching we wanted. (pause) One of the most extraordinary inservices, which was kind of ongoing, was every summer that I went back to teach on those summer sessions I personally went into many of the classes being given by the visitors from England. Those were training sessions themselves. To take that opportunity was personal growth for me. I think at the time they were enjoyable, but when I think of how much I absorbed from them, the growth of my philosophy, which was only taking root...

R. Were you walking into that experience looking for a new philosophy? How could you describe that opening up?

J. By the time I was teaching the summer classes, and had a chance to visit the British teachers' classes, I was then supervisor, so sickened by the inhibiting nature of many of the classes I was seeing and the poor...everything was controlled; let the kids in the gym, but don't let them use it, almost. There was no trust of children, acknowledgement of being a child, an active child. Teachers were afraid of action, scared they would go out of control. I was sick of this limitation of children, the formal detailing of children. Narrowing the children into these limitations was like putting them in a pressure-cooker - not the answer for their developmental needs. There wasn't the freedom of interpretation that is needed with young children. So I had to understand what was behind that - that's when I met up with the philosophy and principles of movement education that were so free...Dr. Gaitskill had brought in some art educators from England, and started the change in childrens' art work into a more creative process, and allowing child-like interpretation of things rather than strictly copying activities. Norah Chatwyn, (the Provincial head of physical education in Ontario) was originally English and she got these people in from England on Movement Education. But it came from Dr. Gaitskill.

Interview #2. R. The "supervisor" role, that you spoke of last interview, was that akin to being an inspector?

J. It may have been an inspector's role in some teachers' eyes, but the struggle was to make us primarily not a reporting inspector - we did not report. Now, if there were extreme problems, we could talk to the principal. On the whole, we spoke to the principal in terms of the program not the people...But we struggled very much to avoid the feeling that we were reporting. The decision about whether you were to have a supervisor in your class was put in the hands of the teachers meant they had the say as to whether they wanted to improve their program. Now, the arguments we got those days were "Well! Only the people who are good are calling you in anyway!" But at least the ones who were good were showing others that it made them no less a professional to have us in. Gradually, those who were less successful would begin to feel, "Well, if so-and-so can handle that, maybe I should too!"

R. Constructive pressure.

J. Professionally, it's quite a statement that we have so many people out there who are leery about finding out new things. The other good thing about calling in a supervisor to visit a confident teacher, is that resource teachers are then developed in the school...Working through "good" teachers we showed theothers that teachers can do it, not just supervisors...we would have the classroom teacher show model situations, rather than us.

R. You mentioned about many co-operative supervision ideas?

J. Yes, teams of supply teachers were on hand. Then a whole school would decide to be involved in an inservice. In teams, we could release teachers for a half or quarter day: to come and talk, plan, or observe children in action. We usually started the day out with discussion about what we wanted to do. Now if the school was well-organized they would have come to those decisions before we came in...In that way, teams were developed in the school. Now the other procedure was to ask a staff to choose a resource teacher in physical education. Then we made special arrangement to get those people in to regional workshops. Then they in turn did the workshop with teachers in their own schools.

R. What about the induction year?

J. It's important that they not be put down or put under. Demonstrations by supervisory staff to show the new teachers the procedures that are respected in that district are important at the outset. One of the best things I saw was a super primary teacher that we had. The administration put two new teachers into a classroom across the hall from her. Those two teachersshared the classroom and moved back and forth to the super teacher's room. So that when one was attempting something in their classroom, the other was over observing what the experienced teacher was doing. This was for a term, until Christmas, then the "extra" teacher was placed. (pause) The isolation of the classroom is abominable.

R. Were there experiences that recurred within your inservice that were educative?

J. We were trying to get teachers to see what children could do, instead of looking at exercises which they took in and told the kids to do...to seek the differences that were in front of them, training observation.

R. Were there any "aha's", ways in which this always worked?

J. Their recognition of my acceptance of variation in the children. There was an acceptance there of the children doing things which were different. Just another version of getting kids over the fact that they don't all have to be alike...One of the things that made it work was the fact that I personally could accept anything the children gave me and use it as a teaching procedure. There was a moment in time when I realized the whole philosophy...in front of all those students - but to get that over to them, that one has to accept everything the children give to you, and then proceed to develop it. But it didn't reflect on me personally what they gave me. But it challenged me as a teacher to help them develop that...trust! The same thing applies to teachers, they cannot be hurried into it "for the children".

R. That's a whole other level of acceptance, through maturity.

J. One can only hope that one has made contact. That's the exhausting thing about supervision - you face a teacher or a group of teachers and you think "How much can I say? What state are they in? How can I change the state they're in so they're more receptive? How much am I going to have to wind them up? How much am I going to have to accept them as being laid back?"

R. What does receptivity mean to you?

J. I guess it begins before I've met the teachers, by knowing how they've come, by what arrangement we've been brought together - bullying or regular procedure something they've sought. Finding out from them, trying to analyze the scene before I move in it.

R. How about their receptivity?

J. I attempt to read their's in the light of the reasons behind why I'm there to do what I'm doing...and therefore to state straight out to start with "I understand you're here because..."

R. (Regarding her year-long study of movement education in Britain) Was there anything galvanized in you at that time that altered you teaching?

J. I think it was a progressive thing, in terms of recognizing the relationship between children and teacher..the whole change of tone, the talking together tone in the gym...some primary children, seven year olds, that we saw. The children had chosen their pieces of music - they had quite a repertoire of little dances. They came and sat and talked with us about what they had done. That whole attitude was part and parcel of the infant schools I visited. Totally different than the lines and rows, precision of many of our schools...ordinary child-like curiosity was accepted, they weren't shoved behind doors and put down. Once there was a lovely central courtyard, in which the children wandered from one class to work areas of different kinds; the hallways were filled with children's work. The relationship between teachers and children was so different...marvelous, human, warm - an interrelationship of adult and child. (Back in Canada) In the gym we were trying likewise to set up group activities, give children choices in those activities. Unfortunately, they tried to open whole schools at once - the teachers were not trained, the kids weren't ready for it, and so they killed "open concept". They hadn't absorbed what the essence of the thing was - the relationship between teacher and children...How much are we prepared to trust them and how much are we prepared to mistrust them and force them into our molds?

Interview #3 R. One thing that has come up in the other interviews is the weakness of needs assessments related to inservice education or curriculum change. Is there something more than needs assessment through standardized questionaires? Are there other ways of assessing interests, needs, directions that teachers would like to go in?

J. Well there is a "force-field analysis", where small groups work together and analyze the biggest "pluses" about a programme and the biggest "minuses", listing these on both sides of a sheet. Each group has their own discussion, and isolates within it the things you really feel are positive, judgment-free.

R. You mean they don't explain their judgment, they just give their weighted opinion?

J. That's right, there's no attempt to question them or to nail them down, simply a recognition of "I think this is good, and that is bad". And then out of that, when you put all the groups together you see which groups have come up with the same ones and you then assume that perhaps these are greater pluses or greater minuses, in the larger group concerning the topic under discussion. From that point of view I like it because you keep a balance of the good things in the programme - you're not throwing out the baby with the bath water. But you're also saying some things ought to be changed; and from the shared concern of everybody - which things you ought to tackle first. It may not be the biggest things, but perhaps the things that are most readily changed - in that respect build on success with some small things before moving on to larger problems.

R. Some people call that prioritization. As you said, it's not a simple linear process because sometimes you might want to do some of the easier things first even though they're not the highest priority.

J. Definitely. In that point of view, you have everybody looking at potential and coming up with success which builds on the next stage.

R. What would you call that activity if it isn't exactly "prioritization"?

J. Well, it's one-step-at-a-time, isn't it? Not attempting to change the whole world at once.

R. "Stepping-stone assessment".

J. Starting with the first step, the one with the most potential in it. One we can all put our shoulders behind and do something about. I think of changing curriculum in physical education and I think that one of the first and easiest things we could do is to encourage teachers to break that initial kind of "Come in, line up and sit-down and shut-up" aspect of the classroom. So it was a simple matter of putting out the skipping ropes as well as the hoops and ask the children to get busy. (pause) What was the original question again?

R. Well I was wondering how you perceived needs assessment?

J. When I talked about cooperative evaluations, last day, those were based on needs assessments within a school, on the part of teachers, principals and the consultants. You talked with a school or a family of school or a family of schools that surrounded a secondary or junior high school...a relatively small area.

R. "School-focused".

J. I think the further you get away from the school and the community in which the school functions, whether it's the educational community or the social-cultural community, the broader the needs become and they become diluted. You see the cooperative supervision that I'd talked about, basically the commitment came from the school. And as a consultant you went in and said "Let's decide what we need" - a mutual decision...That doesn't mean that a group of consultants or a group of teachers or a group of principals, at anyone of the levels isn't a force to be reckoned with...to take some leadership!

R. Leadership is a vital concept I think.

J. Someone has to assume it to get the group going. (pause)

R. How do you maintain your ideals, your hopes in the concrete reality of classroom life? I know this sounds like such a black and white question, yet...in a sense I'm relating to teacher attitude and yet something more than that.

J. Me as teacher, or my understanding of the teacher in the classroom?

R. Both if you can; perhaps starting form you as a teacher.

J. I think that's where in teaching its essential to keep a balance between labour and recreation, work and play...The students themselves bring a life to it that you share and therefore I find it light given to me. I think though I have had to throughout my background, I have had to get off every five years or so to get a perspective on things...I think you have to, at that time, be challenged and put yourself into a balance of restful reflection and deliberation as well as challenging new thought.

R. Like "What did it mean?"

J. Yes. And I think school-boards in general, usually have time for observations, when teachers should be freed of classes...to visit so-and-so somewhere else; which made so-and-so feel pretty good that anybody'd bother to come and visit them; and made the visitor feel good because they got another view.

R. Classroom isolation can be destructive if it brings about educational "tunnel-vision".

J. Yes; the teaming aspect...trying new ideas out on each other. So many people don't want that sort of exchange.

R. Too much trouble, perhaps, although there are educational loners, one-man-bands. I think more often it's laziness.

J. That's true.

R. How about the increasing "professionalization"? The increasing Master's degrees held by school teachers, as well as a growing uniformity across Canada of teachers that hold one degree at least? This is specialization.

J. I'll grant you that. They are more specialized. I don't think that is a sound statement of "better teacher". Specialization with young children is wrong.

I think it's totally disruptive...

R. That's different than the teacher "making a whole class", working as a whole.

J. A clever teacher groups and re-groups, and the children learn to re-group easily, in balance with the whole class. But how many schools do you know of that come together as a whole school anymore?

R. That used to be a big part of my week, as a student.

J. Why, yes. What are we afraid of? That the children won't sit for half an hour for dramas and sing-songs?

R. Why is it too much trouble?

J. Is it too much trouble or don't we trust them to behave? Maybe those were the only times principals could see where there are problems in discipline - seeing them among everyone else. (pause)

J. In inservice you find core people who are willing to do inservice. As a principal or consultant you work with those people to influence others and bring their ideas to the fore. One of the things that used to bug me more as a supervisor was the fact that I'd have good kids on summer staff or as students learning there, who would go into schools but the principal wouldn't know how to help them to interpret what they'd done in the summer and give all the school enthusiastic input.

R. A real finger is pointing to the lack of leadership in the principal's role.

J. There has been some abominable training of principals.

R. Do you suppose part of it is a sort of false humility? Like, "We are running a democracy here and no one is truly the leader". A false sense of what democracy means?

J. Why did they give the principal the name then? Did they not have special training or have they been disembowelled"? That's where we want to get back to the master-teacher idea. I think a lot of principals were not master-teacchers and therefore their ability to help other teachers, especially beginning teachers and to bring recognition to their teachers and to build professionally - they haven't had those skills, but have skills in terms of giving tests, managerial things.

R. Administrators don't realize that in inservice they're taking on the role of teacher. They're there, but they don't realize their supra-administrative responsibilities.

J. Some are afraid of that role because it's been so long since they've handled children they're afraid of giving a demonstration for example...lack of consistent work in the classroom.

R. They have to immerse themselves in the classroom to remain master-teachers, or they lose touch with something in themselves.

APPENDIX 2

SCHOLARLY RESEARCH THAT AFFECTED THE RESEARCHER'S INTERPRETIVE STANCE

The author's scholarly research has been inter-disciplinary in nature. Specialized study of educational concepts and procedures has been conjoined by reference to art education, philosophy and sociology. As a frame of reference, the researcher's over-arching interest in thinking that may be termed "personalist" in nature will first be described.

Personalist Philosophy

To draw a family tree of personalist thinking, the roots would necessarily be composed of the ecclesiastic humanism of St. Augustine and St. Bernard and the philosophical idealism of Socrates and the Stoics (Mounier, 1948, p. 2). In the wake of the many social and political reforms of the Renaissance, Descartes' rationalism was fused with religious and ethical conviction (Maritain, 1946, pp. 83-129; Descartes, 1969, pp. 220-235). However, the development of the trunk of personalist philosophy was to be retarded by the expansion of the sciences of chemistry and biology in the 1800's. Empirical verification practises of Locke and Hume depended on direct observation that at the same time denied the universality of such observations (Harris, 1968, p. 11).

Yet, the trunk of personalism grew strong with the writing of Pascal, Kant, and Maine de Biran. Although Schleiermacher coined the term "Personalismus" in his Discourses of 1799 (Knudson, 1969, p. 17) Charles Renouvier originated "Personalism" as a philosophy in 1903 (Mounier, 1950, p. 1, Knudson, 1969, p. 17). He clearly stated that Kant is the forefather of modern personalist philosophy: "Il ne consiste plus cette fois a imiter Hegel, mais a renouveler Kant. J'avoue nettement que je continue Kant". (Renouvier in Verneaux, 1944, p. 3). Renouvier adapted Kant's spirit of criticism without adopting his system.

As Renouvier's neo-critical philosophy matured, personalism became his guiding, central theme. In Renouvier's view the nomothetic or general, natural laws (Naturawissenshaften) were integrated through responsible action with ideographic or spiritual, mental laws (Geisteswissenchaften). Renouvier's conception of responsible action was the cultivation and deep respect of justice toward resolution of human suffering (Renouvier, 1930, p. 105). Renouvier inspired Emmanuel Mounier to direct a personalist journal called Esprit that was established in 1932. Mounier reiterated Maine de Biran's philosophy of action: "Personalism" is the living activity of self-creation, of communication and attachment, that grasps and knows itself in the act..." (Mounier, 1950, p.

8). A simple example of personalist attitude is: Mary Jones is a Canadian, a teacher, a Roman Catholic, a curriculum specialist, but she is not _a_ Mary Jones - she is Mary Jones.

In 19th century America, transcendental philosophy reflected personalist attitudes, the term personalism first having been used by Walt Whitman in 1867. By 1908, the Christian philosopher Borden Bowne used the term "personal idealism" and sought an interpretation of reality in personal terms, emphasizing freedom, not a uniform body of doctrine (Knudson, 1969, pp. 20-21 & 433). In 1920 Ralph Flewelling established a quarterly called _The Personalist_, (which continues today as the _Pacific Philosophical Quarterly_) contributed to by Howison, Brightman, and Knudson among others (Werkmeister, 1960, pp. 10-11). Both Mounier's and Knudson's books document these personalist manifestations. In addition, there has been an oral tradition of personalist conviction in Jewish culture since the time of Maimonides...

> The wise man who deserves praise is the one who fixes his attention on the realities of things (truth) and adapts his beliefs to them...the fool who is blameworthy is the one who makes his belief standard and thinks that the realities of things must follow his belief.
> (Saadia in Stitskin, 1976, p. 107)

Personalism arises here and there in the form of a central commitment to philosophy in the context of the concrete situation, unconformed to any strict methodology, but responsive and replenished in both the creative arts and moral belief. The branches of the personalist tree are varied then, from the phenomenology of Kierkeguard, Husserl, Heidegger, Schutz and Gadamer, to the secular existentialism of Sartre, the sacred existentialism of Mounier, Marcel and Jaspers, to the humanism of Barth, Buber and Bergson.

Emmanuel Kant had forged the foundation of modern personalist philosophy when he sought to integrate empirical facts with a priori principles. Kant contributed lastingly to recognition of the allied nature of biological and moral worlds (Adorno, in Arato and Gebhardt, 1978, pp. 497-498; Habermas, 1973, p. 89); and further, Kant valued the dialectic between subject and object (Tiryakian, in Bottomore and Nisbet, 1978, pp. 212-213). Dilthey cited Kant as the greatest thinker of the 18th and 19th centuries in combatting positive oppositional thinking; who instead, conceived of man in the world and the world in man (Dilthey, 1954, p. 60).

Kant's prime question was philosophically anthropological: (Buber, 1974, p. 153; Van De Pitte, 1971; Kant, 1978). He asked "What is humanity?" The teleological proposition, that nothing is vain and that everything is organized within a whole, became the mainspring of his philosophy.

> If we supply to nature causes acting
> designedly, and consequently place at
> its basis teleology, not merely as a

> regulative principle for the mere judging of phenomenon, to which nature can be thought as subject in its particular laws, but as a constitutive principle of the derivation of its products from their causes - then would the concept of a natural purpose no longer belong to the reflective but to the determinant judgment. (Kant, 1892, p. 261).
>
> Only in man, and only in him as a subject of morality, do we meet with unconditional legislation in respect of purposes, which therefore alone renders him capable of being a final purpose, to which the whole of nature is teleologically subordinated. (Kant, 1892, p. 361).

The erroneous belief that Kant claimed the separate existence of phenomenal and personal worlds has become widespread, arising from assertions that Kant thought there was a reality "out there" but unknowable (Konecsni, 1977, pp. 55-58). In fact, Kant's formulation of "judgment" legislates from cause to effect, from concepts of the natural world to moral concepts (Kant, 1892, p. 7 & 12). Kant thoroughly connects man and nature in teleological experience. The idea of value-freedom, or ethical neutrality, dear to mechanistic scientism (Habermas, 1972, p. 303) is fundamentally denied by Kant's Judgment, and in all subsequent personalist writing.

Major Currents of Thought

Within the scope of many personalist insights and perspectives, four major currents of thought have given substance to the interpretive stance with which the author met the task of the research at hand: 1) The human process of give and take is as important as the product of exchanged knowledge. 2) Inner motivation and outer effort, when integrated by purposeful decision, enable the fruitful evolution of the educational process. 3) The provision of general education is required to balance singular drives to specialization. 4) Individual character is made socially responsible through dialogue.

Firstly, the idea that the process of education is as important as any product of knowledge acquisition was inspired by my readings. Another term for personalism, for example is "concrete philosophy" (Marcel, 1978, p. 68). By requiring that philosophy be concrete, human activity in the world is seen as being correlative to nature. That is, humanity is reflective of the changes in nature. Nature, unlike our shadow, lives independent of us. Maine de Biran inspired existential philosophy with his substitution of "Volo ergo sum" instead of Descartes' "Cogito ergo sum" (Stitskin, 1976, p. 208). Thus, doing was regarded as the essence of being, rather than abstract thinking alone.

Personalism, or concrete philosophy, doesn't masquerade as a system of final, objective knowledge, but through explorative discrimination and reverence for life, aims at becoming conscious of the extraordinary in everyday circumstances. We can live as encysted things - the "distraction" of Pascal, "aesthetic stage" of Kierkegaard, "inauthentic life" of Heidegger, the "alienation" of Marx, the "self-deception" of Sartre (Mounier, 1948, pp. 23-49). We are then locked outside ourselves, our attention thinly coated over the material world - dissipated. But concrete philosophy strikes a balance between a cutting-off (de-cision) of habitual beliefs and attachments, and receptive, joyful acceptance of life.

Gabriel Marcel portrays concrete philosophy as trans-figuration - verklarung: "transmutation of human experience which is antipodal to a purely abstract or conceptual thought" (Marcel in Gallagher, 1962, p. XIV). Karl Jaspers correspondingly defines philosophy as "the principle of concentration through which man becomes himself, by partaking of reality" (Jaspers, 1951, p. 14). Marcel characterizes philosophy in the realm of being, which is non-possessible, in contrast with strictly rationalist systems of thought in which distinct ideas are in the order of having. Like exploration in Plato's cave allegory, personalist research attenuates until "In a sense, knowledge shrinks as wisdom grows: for details are swallowed up in principles...the stage of shedding details in favour of the active application of principles, the details retreating into subconscious habits". (Whitehead, 1932, p. 58).

Here we must be careful to distinguish between opinion and belief. Belief is a mode of being, not a bit of knowledge to be remembered or forgotten. The elderly woman believes her daughter will take care of her because there exists between them fidelity - "...the active recognition of something abiding". (Marcel, 1963, p. 66). Belief is an unconditional commitment on which love rests, risking and challenging more than any conditional opinion. A rich, close association among people is one in which opinions are still shared about the changing world around them; but their abiding, peaceful belief in one another does not fluctuate. It is from this community of belief that trust supplants indifference, optimism quells cynicism, respect overrides authoritarianism, and responsibility replaces servitude. Through action, unseen character makes its signature in the genuine form of participation. This form is one of fidelity to virtue or it is alienated (Wojtyla, 1979, pp. 296-298). The progressive integration of our intentions in committed participation lends strength to the will...first, we tentatively sense and express impressions, then more certainly find opinions, and with deepest conviction claim faithful belief (Marcel, 1964, pp. 150-170).

Secondly, the author's readings imparted the idea that inner motivation and outer effort could be integrated by one's purposeful decision. Kant had proscribed that man in community ought not be guided by hypothetical desires, but by the practical imperative: "Act so that you treat humanity, in your person and in the person of everyone else, always as an end as well as a means, never merely as a means". (Kant, 1949, p. 87).

The above reformulation of the 'golden rule' is portrayed as purposeful activity pivoting on conscience. To Kant, both the making of things in the world and one's conscientious reflections upon such things occur simultaneously. The catalyst to man's vitality, whether in scholarly pursuit or in community action are the purposeful decisions which we make that unite our ethical conscience with the phenomenal world. Kant termed this purposeful decision-making "judgment". Our mutual obligation is fixed, in this principle, although our points of view are not standard. So far as we do things because we like to do them, or avoid doing things because we dislike doing them, our actions are heteronomous - governed by phenomenally causative laws over which we have no control. But, when we do things because we ought or should, dissociated from direct likes and dislikes, we achieve autonomy because in the assertion of moral will, we assume a special causality of moral judgment. Our world-view is deeply augmented by the decisive action of our will power that gives us strength to shape life, in resistance or acceptance. Not only is there ontological meaning in an act, but the personal performance of activity, itself, is of concrete value.

Purposeful decision cannot wholly be enacted by solely being prescriptive or in being receptive alone. Rather, a living commitment is required toward educating one another more than politically manipulating people. Instead:

> Let us make our education brave and

> preventitive. Politics is an afterwork, a poor patching. We are always a little late. The evil is done, the law is passed, and we begin the uphill agitation for repeal of that of which we ought to have prevented the enacting. We shall one day learn to superscede politics by education.
> (Emerson, 1919, p. 562).

An education that would supercede politics requires a living commitment, in which human receptivity and prescriptivity are the in-and-out breaths. Educational participation can be realized when the teacher 1) is intelligently aware of the capacities, needs and past experiences of the students, and 2) allows suggestions made by him or herself or the students to develop into a plan, cooperatively. Thus, purpose in education grows and takes shape through the process of social intelligence (Dewey, 1938, Chapter VI).

This commitment charges both teacher and student to oppose indifference to either society or character with the consistent belief that the whole can be greater than the sum of its parts. This catalytic belief is nurtured and derived from the elementary confidence of acting jointly. That is, the trust a teacher receives is in proportion to the respect he or she maintains for the presence and directive purpose of each student (Macdonald, 1981, p. 7; Aoki, 1982, p. 15).

If our thoughts and actions are not carefully linked by communicating our purposes, community degenerates as does our character: sanctity and heroism become glory and success; faith becomes fatalism; steadfast will disolves into toughness; love is reduced to eroticism; intelligence is submerged in intellectualism; reason is twisted in cunning; vows become contracts, and our allegiance to truth subverts to manners of sincerity (Mounier, 1950, pp. 39-50). It is only through participative belief and trust that our thoughts and actions can become linked.

The third current of thought which has given substance to the author's interpretive stance is that it is important that general education be provided at the same time as subject specialization increases. Constructive societal consensus cannot be maintained if people's cultural capital is too narrowly focused. When epistemology is taught in special slots of learning with a weak grounding in communal history, culture and values, cynicism grows in the school system. A relativistic, narrow adherence to epistemology grants human fellowship minimal consequence...thus belief in anything is a fool's paradise. Such cynicism undercuts its own platform - pulling up, breaking then inspecting its own roots. Cynicism multiplies on the over-simplified view that education can thrive by keeping subject fields partitioned and our knowledge of them discrete.

Mounier (1950, p. 99) reminds us that there are as many kinds of culture as there are activities. Yet we may become culturally alienated when the discrete rationalizations of our cultural processes replace our drive to integrate the world of things, the world of humanity, and the world of mystery (Nisbet, 1976, p. 111-112; Buber, 1974, pp. 40 & 215). Instead of a synergetic society of mutual service, we often find contradictory blueprints: Rousseau's emancipated man, who is an alien in society; or Locke's conventional man, who obtains social success emptied of compassionate imagination. General education can serve to remind us that the whole world is dynamically alive, not merely monumentally arranged for display (Marcel, 1964, p. 50).

The fourth major current of thought that has given substance to the author's intepretive stance is that our individual character is made socially responsible through dialogue. Through dialogue with others we determine the quality and degree of our participation in society. Buber alerts us that there are three kinds of dialogue (either spoken or in silence): genuine, which establishes a living mutual relationship; technical, that is prompted by a need for methodogical understanding (under which he includes the "privileged intellectual activity of dialectic"), and monologue- disguised as dialogue, that takes many forms such as the debate, the friendly chat, or conversation wherein one's own self-reliance is confirmed by marking the impression made (Buber, 1974, p. 40).

Personalist philosophers have commonly held the conviction that the potential to participate is a part of the self. Further, this potential has to be activitated, formed and cultivated in order to bring it to its fullest realization. By "acting jointly with others" (Wojtyla, 1981, p. 41) a person reaches his or her level of maturity. This "acting jointly with others" stymies atomistic withdrawal that ensues from fatigue, habitual self-centredness, or moral carelessness. Being and acting jointly does not introduce a new subject for action; it only introduces new relationships between people who are the real acting subjects (Wojtyla, 1°981, p. 43). Neither indivdual character nor society exists exclusively, but transformatively - one with the other. "Character is the moral order seen through the medium of an individual nature (Emerson, 1924, p. 267).

We reveal ourselves and come to adopt each other's points of view by mutually reflecting on one another's being. Every intonation of voice, each nuance of action is saturated with meaning. The self and the act are a complex reality, but personal commitment to genuine dialogue or acting jointly endows character with consistency. Consistency isn't possible with a heteronomous, survival-of-the-fittest Weltanschauung. Consistency of character is manifest in dependability and trustworthiness rather than perfected completion.